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ABSTRACT

This publication provides a source of information and research to the people interested in and responsible for American Sponsored Overseas Schools (ASOS). The first section includes an overview of six major categories of research, namely: school setting, school institutionalization; school organization and administration, school program, personnel, and pupils. Each category is treated by three approaches: (a) one or more vignettes to provide fictionalized but illustrative examples of the human element in the ASOS; (b) sets of the author's premises and examples which illustrate the ambiance in which the schools exist, and (c) a narrative providing a conspectus of the included research about the ASOS as related to the major category. The second section discusses the research matrix, said to provide a ready reference to many of the common problems and potentials in the ASOS. Included here are the coding system, regional code, simplified coding system, matrix outline, school setting, institutionalization, organization and administration, school program, personnel and pupils. This model classifying pertinent research is considered to provide the serious researcher not only with a means of classifying existing research but also for identifying the voids in the research base. (Author/AM)

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the AMERICAN SPONSORED Overseas School

A RESEARCH MATRIX

BY PAUL GLENN ORR, PH. D.

1974

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The Center For International Education
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The American Sponsored Overseas School: A Research Matrix

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INTRODUCTION

The State College System of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, through its Center for International Education, seeks to improve international relations and education through many programs and activities. Important among these is the publication and dissemination of research and research related literature.

The publication of this volume, The American Sponsored Overseas School: A Research Matrix, is a result of this interest and reflects the continuing interest of the Center for International Education to foster improved understanding in the international field.

PURPOSE

This publication will provide a source of information and research invaluable to the people interested in and responsible for the many American Sponsored Overseas Schools (ASOS) which serve children throughout the world. The Research Matrix will provide a ready reference to many of the common problems and potentials in the ASOS and will be beneficial to school board members, administrators, faculty and to parents. It will also provide a comprehensive model for the classification of research pertinent to the ASOS and will thereby provide the serious researcher not only with a means of classifying existing research but also with a model which will help to identify the voids in the research base.

Professors and others involved in teaching courses and providing in-service education dealing with the cross-cultural aspects of education generally or with the ASOS specifically will find the book useful as a textbook or as a supplementary text.

THE AUTHOR

Mr. Orr is an internationally respected scholar and practitioner in the fields of administration and international relations. Having worked and served as a consultant for government, business, industry, and higher education in more than forty countries, his expertise has been brought to bear on many complex problems throughout the world. He has had published more than one hundred books and manuscripts. This background of experience prepared him well to write this book.

A particular and long term interest of his has been the American-type school overseas. In addition to fourteen years experience as a university dean and professor, public school teacher and administrator, he has also worked for nine years in American-type schools in Latin America as teacher, principal and superintendent.

Mr. Orr received his Ph.D. from Michigan State University and his B.S. from North Texas State University. His public school education was in Denton, Texas.

In the field of international relations, Mr. Orr has served as Chairman of the Committee on International Relations of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS), as a Member of the Committee on Latin American Relations of SACS, as Chairman of the Committee on International Relations of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), as Chairman of the Commission on International Education (AACTE), and as a Member of the National Advisory Committee on Teacher Exchange (Fulbright-Hayes).

He is currently a Member of the Board of Trustees of the International Council on Education for Teaching.

Leonard J. Savignano
Commonwealth Professor and Executive Director
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The publication of this book is the result of the work of many people.

The Center for International Education of the Massachusetts State College System, through its Executive Director, Dr. Leonard Savignano, conceived the plan and made resources available.

In all cases, the authors of the research reported gave evidence of a deep concern for improving education through knowledge. Their cooperation in assisting in the development of the classification of their research is deeply appreciated.

A final note of appreciation is due to the many teachers and administrators in American Sponsored Overseas Schools who have shared their knowledge with me during the past twenty years.

My colleagues – students and professors – at The University of Alabama have always been my best teachers. Special acknowledgment for helping is due to Dr. Joanne Fraser.

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PROLOGUE

A very legitimate question which should be asked of those concerned with the concepts of internationalism and interculturalism is the rationale for their concern and the basic premises from which they operate. An understanding of the rationale and basic premises should provide a reader – be he supporter or critic – with a better understanding of the author's position and actions as they relate to education and its continuing development.

As an author, my beliefs are very basic; as a student, my understanding of concepts changes and develops as I learn more.

The following discussion represents my position in 1974.

INTRODUCTION TO THE SITUATION

"International education" has developed a host of meanings: from comparative study to technical assistance to developing countries; from foreign intergovernmental relations to exchange – of faculty, students or materials. To many it means area studies and social studies and foreign languages; to a few it is "pen-pals" and international travel. To some it is only scholarly, to others only practical or applied. It involves cross-cultural experience, binational and multi-cultural involvement. It includes all of these and more. In fact, the term, *international education*, has such a wide range of meanings that its value for communication is lost.

Recognizing this diversity of meaning, I will not attempt further definition but rather explore two concepts, *internationalism and interculturalism.*

THE CAUSE FOR CONCERN

Viewing the results of what we have called *international education*, there is adequate cause for concern.

1. There is a dangerous uneveness between our ability to create in people a sense of world responsibility and the increase in our technological capacity to destroy (Von Braun, Frankel).
2. An inverse relationship seems to exist between the world's tendency to grow smaller and the human tendency to become tolerant and understanding. Indeed, during the last generation, the world has had an unprecedented increase in extreme nationalism (Counts, DeYoung, Taylor). Domestically, a corresponding polarization of races is occurring, a tendency to replace racial integration with separatism.
3. People in America are more chauvinistic, parochial and intolerant in their attitudes toward other nations and other cultures than at any time in the past century (Commager 1969, Morehouse 1970) in spite of vastly increased funding and involvement by the United States and our people in area and language studies, international travel, foreign aid, etc. which we have assumed would bring about better understanding. Furthermore, these attitudes pervade our society within, as well as without.
4. The premise that global confrontation is an effective solution to problems is no longer valid. The majority of the American people have not as yet accepted this fact, or if they are aware of its inval-

idity, they have not as yet translated that awareness into appropriate behavior. Moreover, the leadership structure of education has done little to translate this basic change in premise into learning experiences whose results correlate with appropriate objectives. We do not appear to be making any significant progress in replacing confrontation with reason and deliberation even at lower levels.

This cursory introduction to causes for concern is intended to stimulate memory and, combined with a host of other factors within the reader's knowledge, should permit agreement on one major conclusion about our present circumstances: international education thus far has been a failure when viewed in terms of the behavior of a significant majority of the American people.

WHAT INTERNATIONALISM IS AND IS NOT FOR EDUCATION

Internationalism is not an instrument of national security; it *is not* the application of U. S. foreign policy; it *is not* national defense or AID military support to other countries. Education recognizes political expediency and the need for national security. However, the focus of education's involvement *is* our "fundamental concern for understanding better the human condition in the modern world as a vital element in advancing the cause of world peace and therefore the welfare of the citizens of the United States" (Morehouse). Ideally, this understanding of the human condition should characterize individual behavior. Therefore, internationalism *is* a frame of mind, an attitude, a concept of oneself as a member of an international community. It implies valuing cooperation as more important than competition; it means behaving interdependently rather than independently. It is embodied in the principle that was introduced by the International Education Act: that "to be educated in America it is necessary to be educated as a citizen of the international community." It is community membership that transcends national boundaries.

Interculturalism is a necessary corollary, strongly interrelated, but extended to a broader context for it embodies an attitude that transcends not only national but also cultural barriers. Interculturalism is implied in the assertation that:

> The American student and citizen must learn to adapt himself to a world order in which his own culture is one of many cultures each with its own validity and virtue. (Hamblin)

It is therefore a significant attitude to develop in a situation of racial or cultural conflict occurring within national boundaries.

Internationalism *is* our quest for peace. Hence our greatest internal problem of interculturalism is directly linked to internationalism.

> It should be increasingly clear to all peoples of the world that mankind's only hope for enduring peace must be based on recognition that the significant problems of all peoples – of all races, all colors, all religions, all cultural backgrounds – may have implications for all others. (NASULGC)

The question that must be addressed is what are the components of an international attitude?

A CASE FOR INTERNATIONAL/INTERCULTURAL DIMENSIONS IN EDUCATION

I do not believe we can solve the compelling and persistent problems of American society if we attempt to solve them in isolation from the world. If all that is needed to solve serious social problems is a microcosm of society's ills, this laboratory can be found in containment throughout hundreds of places in the world. Simply stated, the world is the laboratory in which one can most effectively research, develop and prove approaches to the most serious problems of our times.

Far too many people make important decisions on bases of irrelevant or incorrect data. These people will change the basis on which they make decisions only when they comprehend that differences such as race, first language, accent, and socio-economic background are transcended by many commonalities of mankind, including: the basic will to survive, the preservation and enhancement of the phenomenal self, the need to be able to communicate with others, the desire to enjoy the benefits of civilization, and aspiring to contribute to the society of which each is a part (when given the opportunity to do so). People must change, but many probably will not; nevertheless each succeeding generation need not be miseducated from the incorrect and folkloric premise of ethnocentrism which pervades much of our education today.

Significant progress will be made when instructional personnel at all levels, elementary, secondary and college are trained and committed to educate for societal and world responsibilities. However, the content and methodology in most preparation programs bear little relation to this objective.

In my opinion, most of our critical societal problems, especially racial discrimination, will be assisted toward solution by educating individuals to behavior that is characterized by not only an understanding of but indeed the acceptance and valuation of the commonality of mankind. This type of education should ultimately result in a convergence of the minds of all peoples on the fact that they are inextricably linked, interdependent and responsible to one another; and that duplicity, however grandiloquent, is counterproductive to survival of civilization in our complex, highly differentiated society. The attainment of a minimally acceptable education is precluded if the intercultural-international dimension is omitted.

There is no single best approach to solving domestic educational problems, I simply plead that if the total approach omits the international/intercultural dimension, that it represents a fragmented approach that in the long run will represent far less success than the minimal acceptable level.

Indeed, America is a microcosm of the world: rich/poor, slums/wealthy suburbs, good schools/poor schools, prejudice/tolerance, good jobs/bad jobs, selfishness/altruism. Societal problems cannot be solved until man identifies with mankind. We can seek lasting solutions by looking at the problems of the world and in most cases, considering America as a part of the world; otherwise we merely cloak cultural imperialism.

Paraphrasing Harold Taylor, other reasons can be extracted for supporting internationalism:

1. *Practically*, to ensure the continuity of civilization as we know it before we blow it up: by "involvement and initiative in world education to achieve a common understanding among cultures, nation-states, and societies through cooperative educational programs."

2. *Morally*, to share what we know with others to help to bring about social and economic security for all men and, in the process, adapt and reshape and re-examine our own knowledge and, hence, be better able to solve many of our own problems.
3. *Intellectually*, to comprehend more fully our own culture and its relation to others through the "injection of new knowledge and ideas from one culture into another," thereby giving greater vitality to both.

OUR STATUS

In examining our status, Commager's observation referring to our approach to the problems of our relations to the rest of mankind is vital: "never in history, it can be confidently asserted, have so many been exposed to so much, with results so meager." We have done much, e.g.:

1. Most schools and colleges have attempted to educate the young to a sense of their membership in the whole human race and their global responsibilities; most elementary schools "teach" non-U.S. history, geography, etc., (social studies); most secondary schools teach the social sciences, modern languages, problems of democracy, etc.; most colleges teach area studies, languages and many, many other "courses" with an intercultural flavor. Information of great magnitude is provided.
2. More news and up-to-date information than ever before bombards masses of people from the most highly developed media system in history: TV, newspapers, radio, magazines, etc.
3. Simply stated, people have more information than they have ever had before, and we operate from a premise that we are thereby creating a society that does not include people who are intolerant to peoples of different color, culture, faith, linguistic backgrounds and political ideologies.

THE GREAT INCONSISTENCY

Many educational leaders and teachers – elementary, secondary, and higher – are assuming that because people have information at their disposal, that it does indeed influence (and guide) their behavior. There is contrary evidence, however, for we do not yet infallibly, as Commager reports "resort to the councils of reason to solve national and/or international difficulties."

John Useem found factual knowledge the least significant dimension of understanding across cultures; yet our approach to learning subsumes behavioral changes from the production of the "little walking world almanac" that Leonard Kenworthy describes.

Phillip E. Jacob in the research studies summarized in *Changing Values In College* presents substantial arguments against the implicit belief that the acquisition of knowledge realizes corresponding development of appropriate affective behavior. Evidence further suggests, however, that affective behaviors do develop when appropriate educative experiences are provided much the same as cognitive behaviors develop. (Bloom, Krathwohl and Masia)

The methodology of attitude change is well known and while exposure to information is considered the least effective of the known methods, there are certain conditions under which information-giving has proved to be effective: (1) when an attitude or value is not firmly entrenched, (2) when change is congruent with the individual need system, (3) when change is acceptable to peers or important to others, and (4) when the source of information is highly respected. Too often, however, our investigation has not determined the presence of these conditions and our information glances off unheeded.

Other methods have been largely unexplored for the classroom. We have not wholeheartedly attempted to train and/or recruit teachers who are behavioral models of internationalism or interculturalism. Behavioral consequences and cognitive-affective dissonance are methodologies sometimes unconsciously, but rarely consistently, employed, and certainly rare in the context of intercultural attitudes and behavior.

Charles Frankel lucidly describes our dilemma as "there was a time when Americans had a choice: to educate for world responsibility or not to do so. This freedom of choice is no longer theirs. Whatever they do, they make a decision that has international impact. . . .schools educate or mis-educate for world responsibility but they cannot avoid doing one or the other."

WHAT ARE SOME QUESTIONABLE PREMISES?

We all operate from some basic premises, defined or not defined. I believe there are several premises from which many people operate – often without awareness – which they should question and begin to replace. In creating programs to produce "internationalism" and "interculturalism," I suggest that among the most important are these:

QUESTIONABLE PREMISE	EXPLORATORY (OR NEW) PREMISE
1. Possession of information changes behavior; "knowledge" results in better understanding of the human condition.	1. Possession of information must be accompanied by corresponding affective learning experiences in order for behavior to reflect understanding of the human condition.
2. Organized learning can only take place in classrooms.	2. The world is the "campus" of schools and colleges. The curriculum of this campus *can* be organized effectively.
3. International education is an area of study.	3. International education is an attitudinal dimension of all areas of study.
4. In order to do anything new or different in education "new" money is required.	4. Most needed changes in education would result from ceasing to do much of what we now do and replacing it with what is more needed.
5. All people need to be prepared to work at productive jobs.*	5. Most people are not needed in the economic structure to make money at jobs; they should be prepared to make life more worthwhile.

*As distinguished from work, i.e. a job is to make money, and work may be only to make life more worthwhile.

6. Global conflict is still an alternative if differences cannot be solved otherwise.

6. Loss of liberty and destruction of civilization is the net result for all of mankind in a nuclear confrontation. Whereas [illegible] extremes become alternatives.

7. Dramatic change can occur only through revolution; the establishment is so entrenched that change can never be rapid, but only evolve.

7. American institutions are unique in that they have the capacity to incorporate avenues for change. Negating this capacity breaks faith with the historic function of American institutions; facilitating this capacity is imperative in times of social crisis.

8. A man is prepared for the future if he is vocationally competent (can make a living), can vote with a modicum of intelligence, is functionally literate and not a "troublemaker."

8. "The educated person can no longer function as a contributing member of society without knowledge and experience concerning other peoples and other cultures. The forces and factors of the international scene underscore the importance of a citizenry informed about and sensitive to other peoples." (Goodson) Every man must recognize that his behavior is vitally interrelated to the welfare of all men.

9. Leadership and instructional personnel in education will develop, improve and change if a strong leader tells them to and manipulates the system so that congruous behavior is rewarded by the system.

9. Professional people identify more with their profession (discipline) than they do with an institution or a system. The key leadership function is in creating a climate supportive of change and providing the opportunities and avenues through which improvement can occur, e.g. international/intercultural experience.

I trust that this volume will be helpful to the reader in developing more knowledge, expanding concepts, and in better understanding the American Sponsored Overseas Schools and those who work with them and are served by them.

OVERVIEW

It is difficult to find an adequate term to describe the American-type overseas schools which are designed to provide educational opportunities for children coming from other countries.* A number of terms have been used: binational, multinational, international, and multi-cultural, and most systematically American Sponsored Overseas Schools (ASOS). Although these are basically characteristic of the student composition of the schools, none of them accurately describe all of the various patterns of organization and structure that exist. However, the various types of schools can be grouped into several categories.

Missionary or Church-related Schools:

These are the oldest type of overseas schools, and were designed to serve either the local children in the overseas area, dependents of missionaries or both. Mission schools represent many denominations and can be found all over the world. One important feature of mission schools is their boarding facilities and in some overseas areas they serve as the only available boarding school.

Proprietary Schools:

These are the second oldest group of overseas schools and are profit-making institutions owned and operated by an individual or a small group of individuals. Although there are still a number of these schools in Europe, very few are found in other parts of the world.

Company Schools:

Company schools were begun by business or industrial concerns operating in areas where educational facilities were inadequate or non-existent. They were deemed necessary in order to attract and retain qualified personnel in remote areas. Although they were founded to serve only the dependents of company personnel, many of them have become binational through the enrollment of children of company personnel recruited from the local population.

International Schools:

These schools are significant because they were established by and are composed of multi-national groups. They have developed curricula which have multi-national aspects and attempt to meet the multi-cultural needs of their student bodies. They are located mainly in Europe. Examples include:

. . . the International School of Geneva – 1,000 students from 50 countries

. . . the International School of the Hague – 500 students from 40 countries

. . . the United Nations School in New York – 300 students from 50 countries

U. S. Department of Defense Overseas Dependent Schools:

The largest overseas school system is the "military dependents" system run by the U. S. Department of Defense. There is a branch of the system operated by each of the arms of the military. The schools are located in 25 countries all over the

*Adapted from an earlier work by the author, The Goshen Project.

world, but since they serve only the dependents of overseas-based U. S. military personnel, all of the students are American. Total enrollments are about 160,000 students in 300 schools with a professional staff of over 7,000.

The American Sponsored Overseas School (ASOS):

In addition to these types of overseas schools, there is another category with which this volume is mainly concerned. This group of schools has had many designations; however, The American Sponsored Overseas School (ASOS) is the most common and most consistent. This category also includes "International Schools" referred to above. Since Americans comprise the largest group of citizens living and working outside their native land, these schools are most frequently American-sponsored and have American-type programs.

Most of these schools are relatively new, established in the last 15 to 20 years, and approximately 20 percent have been founded since 1960. Another 20 percent however, were founded before 1940.

In general, the schools have a similar pattern of development. Wherever Americans live, their tradition of family life and of keeping the school near the home and under local supervision has been maintained. In the face of absence or inadequacy of appropriate education for their children in the overseas community, parents have undertaken to provide the necessary facilities. Basically, the motivation for this undertaking stemmed from the parents' desire for their children to eventually enter U. S. colleges and universities and their wish to avoid sending their children to boarding school.

At the beginning, a group of parents would work out a cooperative tutoring program. This would evolve into a more substantial operation, usually involving correspondence courses. As the community and the size of the group of children increased, a semi-permanent plant would be found, and volunteer teachers from the number of overseas wives would be recruited as faculty. Generally, the school was managed by a school board composed of parents and elected by the parent group. At a later stage, when the size and complexity of the school exceeded the knowledge and experience of the local patrons, a professional administrator would be employed and a general institutionalization of the facility would take place.

Most of these parent-cooperative schools were established by American parents, but as the school grew and the program and facilities improved, many of the local citizens of the area recognized the desirability of an American education for their children, particularly as an advantage to entering U. S. colleges and universities. With the admission of children of national citizens, both host country and third country nationals, and their inclusion on the governing boards of the schools, the foundations for the present parent-cooperative, multi-national overseas schools were complete.

Common Characteristics

These schools have continued to grow and improve, but some of the original patterns of organization and function remain and are characteristic of these overseas schools. Exceptions exist in all cases, however.

1. The ASOS are non-profit, non-sectarian institutions.
2. Most of them are urbanly located, in the capitals or major cities.
3. A system of local control and management is maintained. Three main types of governance are found:

a) a self-perpetuating association composed of share or stock holders, such as a board of trustees or foundation
b) a school board elected by the local patrons of the school or by the trustees or foundation
c) a school board composed of parents elected by the parents who are members of a parent-cooperative.

In these cases, the governing boards are usually composed of both U. S. citizens and Nationals of the host-country. U. S. members are usually in the majority and other nationality groups sometimes participate.

4. The schools have a binational or multi-national composition. The student body is composed of Americans, host country nationals, and third country nationals. (A few countries exclude nationals, a few also exclude anyone except U. S. citizens).

5. The schools are financed mainly by tuition and fees.

Additional support may come from:
a) business and industrial concerns
b) foundations
c) U. S. government agencies
d) local private and government groups
e) individual donations

The increasing costs of operating a school have necessitated that tuition rates be at such a level that they make nearly impossible the attendance of children from middle or lower socio-economic groups. This has caused the student body to be composed of children coming mainly from the upper socio-economic classes. However, scholarships are offered by some schools, often through U.S. government grants or as required by national law.

6. The curricula of the schools are American with attention given to the language, social studies, and culture of the host country. Often, this attention is minimal. American methods of instruction are used as well as American textbooks and instructional materials. English is the language of instruction, but courses or special classes are offered in the language of the host country. Many schools offer the national curriculum in addition to the American curriculum, especially in Latin America.

7. Most of the teachers are American or American-trained, but a large proportion of staff is hired locally from American dependent wives and local qualified personnel.

The Mission Called O/OS, published by the American Association of School Administrators, describes several problems which are also characteristic of the American-type overseas schools.

1. The stability and continuity of the programs of the schools are weakened by the rapid turnover of personnel and rapid change in the student body.

2. Distance from the United States and importation problems often make it difficult to obtain materials from the United States. Acquisition of materials is time-consuming and quite costly. The distance also makes it difficult to keep up with recent educational developments.

3. The distance, lack of sufficient funds, and sometimes, unsatisfactory living conditions limit recruitment and retention of staff from the United States. These factors often make it necessary to hire local personnel, regardless of qualifications.
4. Small enrollments make offering a comprehensive curriculum costly and impractical.
5. Relative isolation of the schools from each other makes the use of supervisors and specialists nearly impossible and necessitates either consolidation or cooperative action.

Some of these problems are being solved through the cooperative efforts of the schools overseas and school systems, colleges, and universities in the United States.

Roles and Functions of the ASOS

The ASOS have the major objective of providing an American-equivalent education for dependents of U. S. civilian personnel abroad and for those nationals desirous of such an education. Additional roles can be attributed to these schools on the basis of their student body composition and their existence in an overseas community. The success of the operation of the school, however, will determine the extent to which these functions can serve as assets rather than liabilities.

1. The schools serve as a demonstration of American education. The school will be expected to exemplify the valuable qualities and merits of a democratic educational system which have been so widely publicized by the United States.
2. As a result of its origin and management, the ASOS functions as a living example of American community democracy.
3. The successful operation of the ASOS affects the recruitment programs for personnel to serve in overseas positions for:
   a) U. S. government agencies
   b) international agencies
   c) business and industrial concerns
   d) cultural, religious, and research organizations

   Obviously, many Americans would be reluctant to accept an overseas position if there were not adequate educational facilities for their children.

The ASOS has the potential to promote international understanding in a variety of ways. At the present time some attempts are being made to utilize this potential, but since the need for multi-cultural education in the United States has only recently been recognized as critical, the use of the overseas school for investigating this educational program need is just beginning. The American-type overseas school has the potential to:

. . . make classmates and close friends out of future international leaders

. . . serve as an important agency for local community activity and improvement

. . . promote programs designed to facilitiate the achievement of international objectives and serve as a laboratory for multicultural curriculum development

. . . provide the United States with a large corps of American youth who have knowledge of the languages and cultures of the homes abroad, and who thus represent a youth group with the potential for international service and leadership

. . . provide the U.S. culture with teachers who have had peacetime overseas teaching experience and multi-cultural orientation

. . . serve as an ideal overseas assignment center for teachers in American school systems who would benefit from international experience and who would greatly enrich their schools upon their return

. . . serve as a training ground for student teachers of American colleges and universities to provide multi-cultural experiences for prospective teachers. (Young, 191)

Under the sponsorship of the Office of Overseas Schools in Washington, D.C., these functions are currently being investigated and tested in projects conducted by such U. S. universities as The University of Alabama, Michigan State University, and The University of Arkansas. Projects are also being sponsored and assisted by several "school to school" projects involving the ASOS and public school districts throughout the U. S.

The ASOS: Compared to Latin America

The ASOS in Latin America have many of the same characteristics and a pattern of development similar to these types of schools in other parts of the world, except for one significant difference, their origin. In Latin America, the national citizens have played a major role in founding the schools. Many of the Latin American parents had been educated in the United States and desired an American-type education for their children. From the beginning they have worked together with American parents in the community to establish and manage an American-type school. In some cases, Bucaramanga, Colombia, for example, all of the parents who organized to found the school were national citizens.

The participation of national citizens in the founding of an ASOS school has caused these schools in Latin America to exhibit characteristics somewhat different from these schools in other parts of the world. The most obvious difference is in the composition of the student body. Most of these schools in other parts of the world have student bodies which are predominantly American and only a small percentage of their students are host and third country nationals. The schools in Latin America, however, have student bodies which are composed largely of dependents of national citizens. In Colombia, for example, the American-type school in Bogota is the only one out of six to have more than one half American students. All the other schools have less than 25 percent American students.

This composition of the student body has had a definite impact on the structure of the language aspect of the curricula offered in the schools. In the schools in the other parts of the world, the American curriculum is offered, taught in English, with special classes for non-English speakers in order to bring them to the necessary language level so that their instruction can be conducted in English. Some attention is then given to the language, customs, and social studies of the host country, but for the most part these are taught in the traditional manner. This is a natural approach when nearly all of the students are native English speakers.

In the schools in Latin America, however, because of the larger proportion of national citizens, several patterns of curriculum organization with respect to language are possible. These patterns can be demonstrated by depicting the amount of time allotted to each of the languages taught in the school. For clarity, Spanish and English are used as examples.

Model I*

Model I: Instruction can be equally divided between English and Spanish. Usually, a school operating with this structure will have one session either morning or afternoon, offered in one language and the other session offered in the second. Sometimes, instruction given in one language is duplicated in the other. In other cases the instruction offered in one language is not duplicated but is reinforced or extended in the second language.

Model II

Model II: Instruction can be provided in both languages, giving each one approximately the same amount of time, but any time-block may contain the two languages used in an integrated or blended manner. Team-teaching is often used in this kind of program.

Model III

Model III: Instruction can begin totally in Spanish and as the student gains mastery of English, less and less time is devoted to instruction in Spanish until all instruction is offered in English. In the final years, Spanish may be studied as another subject in the curriculum. This structure is designed to make the Spanish speaker completely fluent in English.

Model IV

Model IV: Instruction can be offered in Spanish while English is also offered, either as another subject or as the language in which some of the subjects are taught.

What often occurs in the program of the ASOS in Latin America is that elementary programs are constructed after the fashion of Model III and secondary programs are taught in English with the local language offered as an additional subject in the curriculum. The stipulation is then made that all non-English speakers enter the school at the beginning of the program so that by the time they reach the secondary school level they are prepared to receive all instruction in the English language. This practice is consistent with recent studies in language learning which indicate that a child should begin school with instruction in his native language to avoid the difficulties which occur when a child is forced to learn through a language he does not command. Other combinations of patterns are also found.

Another effect of Latin American participation in the management of the schools is the increasing number of schools which are offering both the American curriculum and the national curriculum. All of the schools in Colombia that have a complete secondary program offer both the American curriculum and the Colombian Bachillerato. With the large number of Latin American students, many would

*These models first appeared in *Raison de Ser of the Bilingual School: a Handbook for Teachers.*

not be able to attend colleges or universities in the United States. By offering the national curriculum as well, the schools are more effectively meeting the needs of their students by preparing them for further education in their own country.

The active participation of Latin Americans in the management of the overseas has helped to realize some of the more ideal goals of international cooperation and understanding. A successful school which is conducted and controlled jointly by the members of the local as well as the American community would create more of an atmosphere of mutual cooperation and respect than one which is managed by and serves one nationality alone. To this end the schools in Latin America are making significant progress.

Hopefully, the eventual objective of all ASOS will be to take full advantage of the opportunities offered by the representative cultures and educational systems.

FACTS ABOUT THE AMERICAN SPONSORED OVERSEAS SCHOOLS*

The following facts are based on 1973–74 and are abridged from the report referred to in this section.

The Worldwide Context: The school-age children among overseas Americans – estimated to number nearly a quarter million – attend a wide variety of schools. Most of the children of military personnel attend schools established and operated by the various branches of the U.S. Armed Forces, and a number of government and private sector civilian children also attend these schools on a space-available, tuition-paying basis. However, most of the civilian children abroad attend non-Government, coeducational, private schools of various kinds. These schools include those founded by U.S. companies, church organizations, and individual proprietors, although the largest number of private schools are non-profit, non-denominational, independent schools established on a cooperative basis by American citizens residing in a foreign community. Most of the schools in this last group have received assistance and support from the U.S. Government under a program administered by the Office of Overseas Schools of the U.S. Department of State. The schools which have received such assistance constitute the "American-sponsored" schools described in this fact sheet.

Statistics on the "American-Sponsored" Schools assisted by the Department of State at a Glance: During the school year 1973–74, the Office of Overseas Schools is assisting 134 schools in 78 countries. The purposes of the assistance program are to help the schools provide adequate education for U.S. Government dependents and to demonstrate to foreign nationals the philosophy and methods of American education. The schools are open to nationals of all countries, and their teaching staffs are multi-national. Enrollment in the schools at the beginning of the 1973–74 school year totalled 70,487, of whom 33,992 were U.S. citizens, and 36,495 were children from the host country and from some 90 other countries. Of the U.S. enrollment, 11,966 were dependents of employees carrying out U.S. Government programs, 13,974 were dependents of employees of U.S. business firms and foundations and 8,052 were dependents of other private citizens. Of the total of 5,778 teachers and administrators employed in the schools, 3,071 were U. S. citizens and 2,707 were foreign nationals from some 65 countries. A table is attached which sum-

*"Fact Sheet," U.S. Department of State, Overseas Schools Advisory Council, Washington, D.C., 1973. (Mimeograph)

marizes the salient statistics of the American-Sponsored Overseas Schools. (p. 17)

Basic Characteristics: No statement about the American-Sponsored overseas schools would apply without exception or qualification to each school. Variety is one of their basic characteristics. They range from tiny schools such as Reykjavik, Iceland, with 10 students and occupying 2 rooms, to the International Schools of Bangkok, with about 2,500 students occupying large, modern buildings on two campuses. Very few schools have boarding facilities.

Although emphasis varies, all the schools share the purposes of providing educational opportunities for American and other children which are generally comparable to educational programs in the U. S. and of demonstrating American educational philosophy and practice abroad to help further international understanding.

The schools are not operated or controlled by the U.S. Government. *Ownership and policy control* are typically in the hands of associations of parents of the children enrolled who elect a school board to supervise the superintendent or headmaster whom the board chooses to administer the school. In some schools the organization is highly formalized, comprising corporate status in the U. S. or in the host country, while other schools are loosely defined cooperative entities. Depending upon the predominant character of the American community, some schools are closely associated with the U.S. Embassy and AID Missions; in others the local or international communities share direct concern for the school with the American community. All schools are subject in varying degrees and with varying effects to host-country laws and regulations pertaining to educational practice, importation of educational materials, personnel practices and the like.

Combined annual operating budgets of the 134 schools total approximately $65,000,000. Tuition payments are the principal source of financing for the schools. Tuition charges are generally lower than for comparable schools in the U. S., and in virtually all the schools tuition income is insufficient to provide for programs comparable to good U.S. schools. Many schools derive additional support from gifts and contributions from U. S. and local business firms, foundations, mission groups, individuals and local government, and all have received some grants from the limited funds available under the program of the Office of Overseas Schools (a total of approximately $5,000,000 annually).

The *instructional programs* all provide a core curriculum which will prepare students to enter schools, colleges and universities in the U. S. The language of instruction is English, supplemented in certain schools with the local language. The content of the programs may be more or less typically "American," depending upon the proportion of U. S. students, and the quality, of course, varies with each school. Certain schools, especially in Latin America, must also fulfill host-country curriculum requirements. The curricula tend to be largely academic, with relatively little attention given to vocational or commercial education, largely because of the high costs involved in the latter programs. An outstanding characteristic of most American-sponsored schools is the use they have made of their location abroad to provide quality programs of foreign language instruction, study of local culture, and social studies. The quality and range of instructional materials is good in the larger schools and improving in others.

In terms of *faculties*, the administrators and most teachers are Americans or American-trained, with a large proportion of American staff hired locally from among dependent wives. Most staff members are college graduates, and the majority hold teaching certificates. Lack of funds and, in many instances, difficult living

conditions and isolation from the U. S. professional community make recruitment and retention of qualified personnel from the U. S. difficult. The local and third-country teachers are usually well qualified, although they frequently lack training and experience in U. S. educational methods. Hiring of staff is the responsibility of the individual schools.

Plant and equipment facilities vary widely in adequacy; because of the difficulty in securing long-term financing many schools are housed in inadequate buildings.

STATISTICS CONCERNING AMERICAN-SPONSORED OVERSEAS SCHOOLS, 1973/1974*

Number of Schools	Full High Schools	Professional Staff				Area	Student Enrollment						
		U. S.	Host Country	Third Country	Total		Number of Countries	U. S. Gov.	Bus. & Found	U. S. Other	Host Country	Third Country	Total
20	5	228	44	140	412	AFRICA	17	958	369	510	784	2,414	5,035
47	32	1,012	1,313	183	2,508	CENTRAL & SOUTH AMERICA	19	2,043	3,786	3,386	19,138	3,572	31,925
29	12	583	172	202	957	EUROPE	16	1,254	3,761	1,253	1,310	2,605	10,183
23	12	646	162	142	950	NEAR EAST & SOUTH ASIA	16	3,141	2,386	1,476	916	2,337	10,256
15	10	602	258	91	951	EAST ASIA	10	4,570	3,672	1,427	810	2,609	13,088
134	71	3,071	1,949	758	5,778	TOTALS	78	11,966	13,974	8,052	22,958	13,537	70,487

*"Fact Sheet," U. S. Department of State, 1973.

CHAPTER I

MAJOR CATEGORIES OF RESEARCH: AN OVERVIEW

Introduction

This Chapter includes an overview of the six major categories of research pertinent to the American Sponsored Overseas School (ASOS) which are documented in the Research Matrix in Chapter II. School Setting, School Institutionalization, School Organization and Administration, School Program, Personnel, and Pupils.

Each of these six major categories will be treated in this Chapter by three approaches: (1) One or more Vignettes to provide fictionalized but illustrative examples of the human element in the ASOS, (2) Sets of the author's premises and examples which illustrate the ambiance in which the ASOS exists, and (3) a narrative which provides a conspectus of the included research about the ASOS related to the major category.

To improve perspective about the ASOS, some selected vignettes will be helpful. One may not be able to capture the flavor and the human element of the ASOS by only reading the literature. The fictional vignettes have actual characters and places, but with a greater concern for a thematic story than for the historicity of details. In no case has an actual individual been represented; however many of the story themes are factual.

The sets of premises and examples are intended to touch the major issues related to each category. Everyone concerned with the ASOS will develop – either formally or informally – sets of beliefs, statements of rationale and questions about the ASOS and their status, conditions of operation and potential. Each premise or thesis usually has its counter or opposing premise or its antithesis.

Those people involved and concerned are representative of and include: (1) U.S. officials and officials from other governments, federal, state and local, (2) U.S. and citizens of other nationalities representing business and industry, (3) religious and civic groups, (4) the people who organized the schools and those who support them, (5) boards of control for the schools, (6) personnel employed by the schools, (7) the parents and pupils directly concerned, (8) schools in the U.S. which are related to an ASOS, (9) U.S. colleges and universities which work with the schools, (10) U.S. professional associations, (11) U.S. accrediting associations, (12) a variety of people or groups who foster international education, including foundations, and (13) others. The massive involvement of people and groups naturally results in a wide range and variety of differences of opinion about the organization, goals, conditions of operation and future of the ASOS. The premises in this Chapter are examples of some of these differences. They range from the relatively insignificant to the crucially important. Each, however, is probably treated in one form or another by or in relation to the vast majority of ASOS during any five year period. No attempt is made to evaluate any premise, indeed there are no correct or incorrect premises appropriate to all of the ASOS or those who are linked to them. The reader is advised, however, to develop his own rationale and to develop an understanding of any antithetical rationale. As the reader pursues the statements of premise, their interrelationships and overlaps will become increasingly obvious.

The conspectus of research is simply an overview selected from the research reported in the Research Matrix in Chapter II.

VIGNETTE

Lalo Vega Vega: Shocked Into Education for Democracy

If indeed, the Nationalsozialist were to rule the world as its leaders believed, it would be necessary to have a cadre of German speaking people throughout the world. Schutzstaffel Colonel Rudolph Betz determined that in the developing countries, a series of schools should be organized to provide for National children a bilingual program (German and the language of the host country). These schools would be well financed and would become centers not only for the children but also for parents, friends and the community. Low client cost private education of high technical quality coupled with well appointed facilities to present films and displays about the growth of Germany under the Third Reich was launched. The story of movement from abject depression to industrial development and the creation of an awesome military capability with general prosperity, full employment and national pride was told in many ways and to many people in their own language as well as in German. The Third Reich was presented as the true destiny unattained because of weakness in the Weimar Republic and the earlier German Empire.

Lalo Vega Vega, a young Latin American, had returned home after graduating from a U.S. university. He was among the first of a group that would represent a massive shift of Latin Americans from European to United States universities for their higher education. Like many children of the rich and landed gentry throughout the world, he had decided early that his life would be dedicated to improving the lot of people. He had developed a deep sense of understanding about democracy and freedom and his energy and time was consumed in national politics. Meanwhile, his wife enroiled their oldest son, Jorge Vega Velasco, in the kindergarten of the local German school. Lalo complained mildly that he had heard some rumors that the school was involved in some questionable practices but he didn't push the point – after all, early education and religious training of children were responsibilities of mothers.

Lalo's mild concern was exploded into appalled reaction a few months later when, upon greeting Jorge, rather than a little boy jumping into his arms for a hug and a kiss, the tot came to rigid attention, extended his right arm stiffly, and barked "Heil Hitler!" For the first time, Lalo understood what he knew, that education could be used for many purposes and that schools were too important not to have parents involved. His experience with U.S. education had impressed him with the value of a free and democratic system being reflected in schools.

Within a few weeks Lalo Vega and several other parents founded an American School dedicated to the principles of democracy, individual rights and responsibilities, a bilingual education in English and Spanish and controlled by a local board including parents. The first American School founded by non-U.S. citizens came into existence.

The U.S. Ambassador reported this treat of spreading Nazi influence and suggested that consideration be given to a study of it. An Undersecretary of the U. S. Department of State undertook such a study.

The U.S. Government had followed a sound and sometimes painful policy that federal government should not be involved in supporting pre-collegiate education and that any hint of government interference in education should be avoided both in domestic and foreign policy.

The dilemma was resolved by a small grant from the U.S. Department of State to a professionally controlled, nongovernmental organization for the purpose of providing small grants-in-aid to United States Sponsored Overseas Schools. Thus, the U.S. Government for the first time provided indirect financial support to a few American schools in Latin America, but was then too involved in World War II to devote much more attention to the ASOS for several years.

VIGNETTE

Don Carlos Camaano: An Humble and Thoughtful Man

Don Carlos started his life in the treeless grassland area of South America between the Andes and the Atlantic; he would also end it there. The pampas grass nourished his cattle; and its silvery plumes, he believed, nurtured his soul by providing a tranquil setting in which he thought about the nature of man and the future of the world.

Don Carlos was fourth generation European, his ancestors having fled Europe to avoid increasingly petty but constant war (and subsequent conscription) for causes related to everything except the people. He viewed his tranquil and isolated life as an interlude in history because he knew that in the cycle of history, sooner or later, that mankind's interdependence would again loom. He pondered the question and over the years, after many deep and melancholy searches for understanding about man and the world, emerged with a belief that knowledge was the only enduring strength, and that knowledge about the United States would be particularly valuable to the next two or three generations of Camaanos.

Each year thereafter, he donated $4000, about ten percent of his income, to the American schools. His major question during times of pensiveness for the last ten years of his life evaded resolution: why didn't more people in the U.S. recognize that knowledge of Latin America would serve them well over the next two or three generations?

VIGNETTE

Ling Yung: Patient Revolutionist

Ling, like his father before him, knew that his country would be an emerging country for several more decades. His challenge was not to forget the revolution's major purpose of providing freedom and liberty for a self-governing people.

Even though he maintained Jefferson as a hero, he also wished that his country's revolution had occurred at a point in history when great expanses of water served as a barrier to outside interference during a period of development. He believed that the great dilemma confronting his country was to arrive at that critical mass of an educated population necessary to sustain self government before totalitarianism became the only alternative to survival during the struggle toward democracy.

Even though his nationalism was chauvinistic, he welcomed private schools as a means to an end. Education was more important at that point in his country's development than was the question of education for what?

Premises

The following premises relate to selected sub-topics included in the Research Matrix but are not discrete to any explicit topic.

Premise: Many pupils and professional staff are mobile, or transient; therefore the ASOS should take unusual geographic factors—especially climate and altitude — into account in the development of school policies, regulations, curriculum, and rules.

For examples: (1) the school day in tropical climates should be adjusted to the temperature and rainy season, (2) newly recruited professional personnel should have an adjustment period for reducing such conditions as time-lag and climate adjustment and also have less demanding assignments for a reasonable period of time, (3) linkages with U.S. schools and colleges should be given preference if they are located in similar weather zones, especially to correspond, insofar as possible, to clothing needs, adjustment, etcetera, and (4) the curriculum should be adjusted to assure that the most difficult and demanding subjects are taught at the most pleasant time during the school day.

Premise: Family structure varies considerably from culture to culture and differences among beliefs have extraordinary implications for schools with a multiple nationality pupil population.

For examples: (1) in cultures in which the extended family is common and valued, individual ownership of items is uncommon and possession at a point in time is accepted; knowledge of this may be understanding the difference between stealing and possessing an item, and (2) emotion and emotional outlet is encouraged in some cultures and viewed as weakness or lack of control in others; understanding pupil and parent reactions for what they are and for no more than they are is vital to the resolution of school problems.

Premise: Social class patterns are varied and uneven but distinct and extant throughout the world and are probably more intense among peoples without a history of democracy and in countries with two to five percent of the population controlling the wealth and with no existing or emerging middle class; complex implications for schools include relations of children to each other as well as children and parents perceptions of the role of the school and the place of teachers.

For examples: (1) a teacher may be classified as a servant or as a demigod, (2) school personnel may not be viewed as social equals, and (3) perceptions of social class may influence strongly the behavior of children and their parents in relation to school personnel and to other children and other parents.

Premise: Many religious tenets, including Judaism, Christianity, Islam, Buddhism and others, may be found in one or more combinations, in a typical ASOS. That the schools are nonsectarian is important for practical reasons as well as legal ones that deal with the separation of church and state in the U.S.; however religious tenets have a profound effect in many cases on school-related matters.

For example: (1) the school calendar, particularly holidays significant to one religion but not to others, or lack of holidays on days of significance to a group can result in disruption of the calendar, (2) choice of food or a lack of choice may have some significance, (3) supporting or not supporting a cause which has religious overtones may be viewed negatively, and (4) curricular references to any religion, even

as a study of religions, or in music, art, et cetera, without equal treatment of another may be viewed as unfair.

Premise: Developing countries are rarely able to provide public education accessible to all children; private education is often viewed as a required supplement but is viewed from a range of necessary but not desirable to highly desirable and an excellent alternative.

For example: (1) private schools as viewed in some countries are a means of relieving the demand on public education, (2) private schools are viewed by some as a viable option for parents who want a special kind of education for their children, and (3) some governments view education as the means of building loyalty of one kind or another, and private education for citizens of that country may be viewed as an infringement on national prerogatives.

Premise: Some citizens of many countries view their country as being closely related to another country or to certain philosophic or cultural orientations; therefore they value schools, especially the ASOS type, with bilingual programs and nationality mixes as a very positive alternative.

For examples: (1) a country with close economic ties to another will have many parents who desire that their children become fluent in their own and the language of the other country simply as a means to prepare them for the future, (2) many parents desire a private but non-sectarian education for their children and an ASOS is often the best option, (3) many parents simply want their children to learn to speak English, and to be able to pursue future higher education in English speaking countries, (4) the reflection of democratic principles, especially the recognition of the worth of each individual child, has great appeal to many parents, and (5) the fact that most ASOS permit parental influence on school goals appeals to many parents.

Conspectus of Research

Every school is influenced by the total setting in which it operates or its macro-societal setting. American Sponsored Overseas Schools (ASOS) are located throughout the world and each has its own unique problems and potentials. Every school is also influenced by its school clientele, or its micro-societal setting. School clientele in the American Sponsored Overseas Schools (ASOS) vary as much as do the countries themselves.

Some of the ASOS operate in relative isolation from constraints by host country governments and the conditions of the country; others exist under a ponderous mass of controls and regulations. All exist, however, with a telling influence from the ambiance in which they operate.

The clientele of the ASOS varies by nationality, first language, political and social beliefs and values, and indeed by what they believe the role and scope of the ASOS should be. Often the U.S. government employee on a two year rotation may differ in beliefs concerning bilingual programs from the U.S. business person on a long-time appointment. The National parent may differ further and for different reasons.

The evidence is compelling in all cases, however, that the ASOS functions in a complex setting as a normal condition of operation. This complexity is often com-

pounded or alleviated by the macro and micro societal setting in which the school operates. An understanding of the school setting can be enhanced by a familiarity with the existing research base pertinent to the ASOS. The major source of research studies of this type have been conducted primarily by natives of a particular country in pursuance of graduate degrees in United States universities. This type of data is invaluable to the ASOS in planning programs relevant to improving cross-cultural relationships and in investigating opportunities for assisting host country educational systems.

The studies can be grouped into three major types: (1) those tracing the development of education in the country and/or which describe or examine problems of the present day educational system; (2) those which are sociologically oriented, examining the culture and value system related to education; and (3) those which are economically oriented, relating education and manpower development. All of the research matrix sub-categories are represented in the studies examined.

Public education in any country usually has some relationship to national goals and to national conditions. People familiar only with U.S. education frequently experience difficulty in understanding that most public education in the world is not free and substantially controlled at the local level. Public education as an instrument of national development or for political purposes is indeed contrary to the background of most U.S. personnel. Public education in many countries is not as important as private education and indeed the private schools of many countries are an important and significant part of the total educational structure. Within most countries, the ASOS is viewed as one of many private schools and operates under private school regulations rather than as a "foreign" school.

Several sample studies are reported in the Research Matrix as examples of the types of studies available to people interested in the macro societal setting in which an ASOS operates. Many more studies are available and include those conducted by UNESCO and similar agencies, various national ministries, and particularly in some developing countries, studies and planning documents supported by AID.

The American Sponsored Overseas School (ASOS) frequently encounters problems unrelated to it specifically but nevertheless problems which impinge on its operation. These range from immigration regulations, customs constraints, and taxes to attendance of National children and the requirements of the National curriculum. McWhorter (1969) reports some of these constraints in Venezuela, Patterson (1960) in Mexico, and Bruce (1973) in Europe. Orr (1971) and Fox (1969) report fewer constraints in Costa Rica and Colombia.

The ASOS generally does not operate under a bilateral agreement between the United States and the Host country; therefore most of the schools have as a legal basis general statutory provisions not specifically designed for the operation of a foreign school. In Greece, the ASOS operates under provisions designed for minority schools (Dorbis, 1973) to operate on the border with a program not in the Greek language. The ASOS in Mexico exists legally under statutory provisions designed for nonprofit educational, cultural and scientific organizations. This exempts schools from corporation taxes on property. The major ASOS in Iran operates under a charter which limits enrollment to holders of a passport from the United States; however another American-type school in Iran is open to enrollment of all nationalities. The ASOS in Cairo and in all of Venezuela are open to all nationalities except Nationals.

A major observation that can be generalized is that the ASOS most frequently

has a legal status under provisions which are inappropriate for the operation of a school with a program including components of U.S. curriculum and some instruction in the English language.

In addition to the legal status of the ASOS, it also is governed under laws and regulations which apply specifically to education in private schools. These vary significantly and range from little or no control to very explicit control of curriculum, sometimes to the extent of standardized examinations.

Immigration and import regulations also have great impact on the ASOS. The number of U.S. personnel, the ration of U.S. personnel to National personnel, the time lag for legal immigration to work, the books and instructional materials which can be imported and, if so, at what cost, are all affected.

Most countries in which the ASOS operates have much more comprehensive (and employee oriented) labor laws and regulations than do schools in the U.S. Generally, all employees of all nationalities are subject to these laws. The requirements range from seriously constraining to mildly annoying. An employee in Mexico after seven years of service usually has the right to a lifelong position and indemnifications provided by law even if discharged for cause are practically equal to lifelong continuation of salary. A new mother in Colombia is entitled to a free bassinet and day care for her children under certain circumstances. Benefits, particularly in cases in which employees are involuntarily terminated are costly; they are also generally substantial as a result of required bonuses and similar provisions such as one month's salary for each year's employment upon leaving or upon the purchase of a private dwelling.

These tangential but very real problems are major considerations in what appears to the inexperienced to be top heavy organizations in many of the ASOS. But, more importantly, they provide the rationale for the crucial need for those concerned with the ASOS to develop an understanding of the social, moral, legal and national setting within which the ASOS is operated.

Orr (1964) reported the importance and significance of this understanding for the following reasons:

1. The schools enroll National children – they purport to meet their needs and allegedly adapt their programs accordingly – hence the school is intimately related to the total national educational setting within which it operates.
2. All ASOS schools are reported to be engaged in the bicultural aspects of education.
3. In the conduct of programs of international education, errors can arise or be compounded by ignorance of national educational systems.
4. The role of the ASOS in any particular country is relatively unimportant to the total National problem of education; hence organic laws and statutory regulations often affect a school incidentally rather than intentionally; thus an understanding of national education alleviates the persistent problems encountered by the schools in their relations with governments.

To develop an understanding of the setting within which an ASOS operates, Orr developed a review of the stages of development of education in Mexico. This case

study traced the historical development of education in Mexico with special attention to the three problems which have historically affected Mexican education; namely, political upheavals, church and state relations, and the stratification of society.

Extracted from the case study were several important implications for ASOS leaders and clientele which would foster understanding of the cultural and historical context in which the ASOS operates. Among the understandings are:

1. The Mexican government is primarily interested in public education and only secondarily in private education.
2. The Mexican government is interested in employing public education as a principal instrument of national development.
3. The Mexican government is realistic in its quest for universal education and the development of an industrialized society in that it has – and probably will continue to – incorporate elements of "foreign" educational philosophies into its own system; however, these are fully "Mexicanized" in the process.
4. The "socialist" nature of Mexican education poses little threat to guardians of U.S. political philosophy; with respect to education, "socialist" education is clearly Mexican, nationalistic and very likely essential to the continued growth of the nation. To associate this form of "socialism" with Marxist dogma is unquestionably in error.
5. With respect to private education, historically this has been associated with church-related education and with education for the privileged; hence, directors of binational schools cannot realistically expect the Mexican government to have a great reservoir of good will toward such schools, wherever the government official himself might send his own child to school.
6. The historical conflict between the state and church in Mexico permeates all aspects of education. Since church related schools are "tolerated" rather than sanctioned by law, the non-church related private schools must expect also to be restricted in their development – whatever the merits of the case – as are the church related schools.

These understandings may assist those concerned to develop better perspective about actions which may appear to sanction the ASOS. For example, an absolute restriction on the importation of foreign textbooks may be directed toward the national strategy of restricting church-related textbooks, or the decision to foster the development of the publishing capability of the country, or toward appeasement of labor to assure more jobs for nationals. The ASOS may simply get included because of its relative insignificance as a part of the totality of the system in which it operates.

Several studies have traced the historical development of education in Latin American countries. Kilgo (1966) examined the development of education in El Salvador, traced the historical development, described the present day public system of elementary, secondary and university education and the current transitional expansion phase the country is undertaking. Wilson (1966) examined the development

of education in Ecuador and traced the history of the educational system from the colonial period to the present. Carter (1965) traced the historical development of education and described current Peruvian education, its schools and operation: goals, curriculum and methodology. He also provided a demographic, socio-economic and political description of modern day Peru and makes recommendations for improvement of the present system.

Gomez (1968) utilized Portuguese sources and the field study method to report: (1) the historical background of contemporary Portuguese society and education, (2) the philosophical commitments which provide the directing goals for education in Portugal, (3) the organizational and administrative structure employed to implement political control, and (4) the pattern of educational institutions employed to make prevailing social objectives operative among Portuguese people.

Buck (1967) described the development of the philosophy of education in the Central African Republic, and Kahn (1967) reports on the development of secondary education in East Pakistan.

These studies specifically and this type of study generally will aid the board members to gain an improved perspective about the educational status of countries on a comparative basis. A study of the educational system of a country in which the ASOS is located is vital to anyone needing to understand the setting in which the ASOS functions.

A number of studies examined described the present educational system in a country, identified a current problem and proposed a program or a problem solution.

Zaki (1968) proposed guidelines for improving the preparation and selection of textbooks for primary schools in the United Arab Republic. He also reviewed the major social, economic, political and educational changes in the UAR from 1952 to 1965. He presents a description of the current educational scene, aspects of primary education, present problems and present textbook selection procedures. He also examines the different points of view regarding use of textbooks and derives implications for UAR education.

Saleh (1966) proposes a pre-service teacher education program for the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. He identifies the assumptions on which the present Jordanian teacher education program is based and suggests changes in the existing program.

Patel (1965) investigated in-service education of secondary teachers in Gujaret State and Greater Bombay, India. He reported the type of subject matter of in-service programs in 66 schools, their sponsorship, incentives offered, leadership supplied by various agencies and plans for future activities. He concluded that the lack of in-service opportunities were due to teacher overload, underpay and low professional status ascribed to teachers. Responsible agencies made little unified effort, and coordination was inadequate. Also, he reported that autocratic administrative behavior and the hesitancy of teachers to take the initiative contributed to in-service difficulties.

Sekhri (1967) examined the administrative organization and financing of public education in India. Fernandez (1966) made a comparative study of nursery school education in India and the U.S. The study examined the scope, size and nature of nursery school programs in India and determined differences in nursery school practices. The study also: (1) examined teacher expectations and teacher perceptions of parent expectations from nursery education for Indian and U.S. children, (2) ex-

amined attitudes of nursery educators regarding selected personality characteristics of children, (3) examined general characteristics of parents sending children to nursery school, and (4) proposed a nursery education program as a laboratory program for Indian higher education.

Noor (1965) reported perceptions of in-service educational needs for secondary teachers in East Pakistan. The study determined the criteria for in-service education and analyzed in-service needs as perceived by teachers and administrators. Both groups were in general agreement concerning priorities. Noor also examined standards set for salary increases and promotion and ascertained the role of the East Pakistan Educational Extension Center as a primary agency for in-service education.

Hosseini (1966) developed implications for Iranian education as derived from the American 'reflective thinking' approach to teaching.

In the area of guidance, Cardenal (1968) developed a four point plan for the introduction and organization of guidance services in the secondary schools in Nicaragua. The study examined the demographic, social and economic realities of Nicaragua to determine guidance needs, reviewed pertinent legislation and described existing guidance services. The four point plan included:

1. guidelines for a curriculum to prepare guidance personnel,
2. establishment of a Directorate of Guidance Services in the Ministry of Education to: organize services in schools, conduct research, provide placement services, and a psychological clinic,
3. a plan to organize regional guidance centers in 10 cities, and
4. a design for the organization of the proposed program.

Georgiades (1966) presented a plan for establishing guidance services in Cyprus which provides a model program for meeting the needs of developing countries. The proposed program emphasized vocational and educational planning to meet Cyprian needs and also made provision for training and utilizing existing teaching personnel. It instituted the use of teacher – and assistant-teacher-counselors and utilized the specialized services of the Ministries of Health and Labor. The study described the recent socio-economic changes in Cyprus relative to existing educational programs.

Other studies in this category include de Vera's (1967) investigation of the use of educational television in Japan and R. H. Roth's (1967) cross-national study of secondary teachers in England and the U.S. Roth examined the incongruence of perceived teacher roles, expectations and positional stress.

These studies suggest the numerous opportunities available to ASOS to provide demonstrative assistance to host country educational personnel, particularly in the emerging nations, in developing new programs and improving educational practices. Studies such as these provide information for ASOS personnel concerning the points of contact and commonalities and differences in the host country and U.S. educational processes.

Sociologically oriented studies examined provide useful information for understanding the host country culture. Few of this type of study have been done

relative to educational needs and processes. However, this type of information could, perhaps, be found elsewhere in anthropological and sociological fields, suggesting then that the adaptation and utilization of the raw information in educational programs would be a fruitful area of study.

Vinocur (1968) investigated cultural values and education in Mexico and Brazil. The study provides a profile of Brazilian, Mexican and Latin American values as found in U.S. scholarly literature, 1950-64, and concludes that American educators and scholars have failed to recognize the fundamental and influential nature and role of the dominant Latin American value system in the development of their educational systems. Vinocur also concludes that this failure has retarded significant educational research in the understanding of these countries. In addition, the multiplicity of terms used concerning values has greatly hindered clarity of thought and impeded recognition of the social forces which influence educational matters in these countries. As an integral part of the study, Vinocur depicts the dominant Latin American value system and outlines Mexican and Brazilian value systems and associated concepts. He also describes the manner in which the Mexican and Brazilian educational systems work within their own value constructs.

Payne (1967) investigated a condition which most ASOS educators in Latin America encounter if they have host country girls in the school: the confrontation of traditional and modern values for the Latin American female. The girls in the study, students at the University of San Andres, La Paz, Bolivia, were identified as a potential leadership group in an emerging nation and the values under examination were those identified as influencing factors in the exercise of leadership. The study sought to determine whether subjects were experiencing value crises, or confrontations of traditional Latin values: personalism, emotionalism, idealism with modern values: economic security, exercise of rights, national identity. All hypotheses were supported: in extensive personal interviews subjects expressed both traditional and modern values and revealed value crises by direct expressions of conflict, anxiety and confusion. Idealism most often was the source of conflict. Expressions of crises occurred at all levels of university study, but although girls in the upper level showed somewhat greater certainty, crises were not completely resolved while in university.

Friesen (1966) investigated in Colombia and Peru the nature and determinants of attitudes toward education and physically disabled persons. The study focused primarily on the manner in which certain attitudes are formed. One important aspect of the study involved the development of a rationale and technique for analyzing cross national concept comparability.

Sociologically oriented studies conducted in other areas of the world include Chardrasekharaiah's study (1968) of personal hopes and aspirations, worries and fears of senior high school students in Bangalore City, Mysore State, India. The study surveyed Indian youth and described the emotional state of young people arising from confrontation with the pressing problems of the nation. Malik (1966) analyzed the report of the Commission on National Education for Pakistan and determined that the Commission's recommendations implied the necessity for reorienting values concerning education and developing a new philosophical base for the national education system that would view education as a national investment for social and economic development and integrated education with planning for national development.

Shimahara (1967) investigated the enculturative roles of Japanese education, comparing urban and rural educational systems in Japan and making recommendations for change.

Amare (1964) reported on the socio-moral problems arising from the introduction of modern education to Ethiopia.

Weaver (1966) conducted a comparative study of four Congo culture clusters. The study investigated the cultures of the maor tribal groups in the Congo seeking the common, complementary and conflicting facts which could be useful in developing new educational programs. Data is presented on environment, economic life, social organization, cohesion and culture contacts. Implications are drawn for educational applications which would assist toward the goal of developing national unity.

Several studies were examined which focused on the importance of education to manpower development in emerging countries. These studies provided a background on the current economic conditions in the respective countries and examined problems of educational planning for meeting manpower needs.

Medallada (1968) identified the socio-economic development practices in the public schools of Taiwan, Japan and Mexico and determined their applicability to the Bicol Region of the Philippines. He also described and evaluated the socio-economic conditions and the public schools of the Bicol Region.

In a study in the field of political science, Danielson (1966) analyzes and compares educational and economic growth in the Philippines for 1939 and 1960 incorporating a new technique for measuring human capital in the determination of aggregate output of the economy.

Jolly (1966) explores a real resource approach to analysis and planning of educational expansion because, in his view, cost-benefit assumptions are inappropriate for developing countries. The study utilizes the manpower issues of the African nations as case material.

Grant (1968) assessed the appropriateness of the science curriculum in Nigerian secondary schools for the country's scientific manpower needs. The study provides background information on Nigeria's geography, people, government, economic development and educational growth. It presents information on scientific manpower needs and assesses the vocational interests of 489 science students in 12 schools. Grant described the content and methodology of science instruction and obtained perceptions of attitudes and practices of Nigerian science teachers. He found that although there is a high need for manpower in science-oriented careers, students indicated little interest in science-related occupations. Grant concluded that the science curriculum and methods are not relevant and teachers do little to motivate interest in science-related careers.

Ahmed (1966) provides an estimate of educational requirements determined by manpower needs for economic development in Pakistan. And H. R. White (1965) studied the possible effects of selected educational policies and programs on income size and distribution in the industrial sector of Peru. Also concerning Peru, Stephens (1970) examined the power structure and political behavior of members of the Peruvian upper classes. The study provides useful information since host country elite are often included in the ASOS clientele in Latin America.

An apparent void in the research is the level of knowledge ASOS personnel and clientele have about the macro-societal setting in which they work and the many

relationships that this knowledge – or the lack of it – may have on the perceptions and behaviors of the school and those related to it.

The micro-societal category, or school clientele, includes studies investigating aspects of the ASOS client society: the home environment, parental attitudes, characteristics having influence on the type of student attending the American-sponsored overseas school.

None of the studies examined had this aspect of overseas education as their central focus. Clearly this is an area in which research needs to be conducted.

Several studies, however, do treat in a minor fashion a few of the sub-categories of parents of ASOS students in the different regions of the world. The occupational categories included: employees of the U.S. government, U.S. business, host country and other foreign business and other. McGugan (1971) reported the number of students who were dependents of U.S. government employees in the ASOS in Latin America.

In a study related to this matrix category, conducted by Wenner (1970), four Department of Defense Schools, one in Germany and three in East Asia, were examined in a case study approach. The central focus of the study was the operation of a traditional institution, a school, in the context of three cultures: American, host country and military. For one aspect of the study, Wenner conducted interviews with parents and students to ascertain the frequency of in and out of school patterns of interaction with people of the host country. He found that the extent of interaction of both parents and students was minimal despite the expressions on the part of the parents of the desirability of cross-cultural experiences.

This was the only study which attempted to assess cross-cultural contact within the parent community of an overseas school. However, the recognized differences between the DOD school and the American sponsored overseas school indicate that further exploration of the topic in the ASOS setting might obtain different results, and provide further insight into problems related to cross-cultural interactions among students.

5 SCHOOL INSTITUTIONALIZATION

VIGNETTE

Henry O'Leary: The Quest for Natural Fiber

In 1870, John Scarpetti was a free spirit and a businessman who pursued his business anyplace it took him. He made brushes on the East coast and his primary problem was getting good natural fibers to replace hog bristles which were not in adequate supply at a cost he could afford. John expressed his concern and soon found that another merchant, Henry O'Leary, was also having problems getting adequate supplies of manila hemp to produce rope for outfitting ships. Scarpetti and O'Leary decided to write to Michigan Agricultural College and inquire about the availability of natural fibers. The professor they contacted could help. The year before he had advised Bruce Olds, a midwestern manufacturer of binder's twine, that he had reason to believe that the Mexican agave (*Agave atryirens*) had great promise as a natural source of fiber and Olds had been in Mexico investigating the maguey plant. This plant had been used by the Aztecs for centuries as a source of pulque (an alcoholic beverage), fiber for thread and thorns for needles. It was abundant, grew voluntarily and required no care. Within two years, Scarpetti, O'Leary and Olds were in business in Mexico and the maguey plants proved to be an eco-

nomical and durable source of fiber. They were venturesome and soon more successful than they had been in the Midwest and the East. Their wives and children joined them in Mexico and they became exporters of fiber to the U.S. market.

Each mother tutored her children at home for a few months. Parents teaching their own children and only their own children usually encounter difficulties. This was true for the three mothers in Mexico and they were concerned about the problem but couldn't develop a solution. Mr. Olds suggested that they write to the Professor at Michigan Agricultural College for suggestions. Within a few months, Mr. Olds heard from a state college in Nebraska with a suggested solution. As it happened, this Nebraska professor had worked with his Michigan colleague on a screw worm project and they had discussed some correspondence courses that Nebraska had developed for isolated ranchers and grain farmers in Nebraska without schools available for their children.

Mrs. Olds had two children and a large house. She offered to set up one room as a classroom so that all of the Olds, Scarpetti, and O'Leary children could study the correspondence courses together and the three mothers could rotate monitoring and helping the children. The first germ of an American School in Latin America was born.

Within several years many of these clusters of two or three families pooling resources had formed. Minerals were abundant, silver was to be mined, petroleum was a possibility and international trade was developing as entrepeneurs sought new sources of raw materials for a rapidly booming industrial revolution in the U.S. In Maryland, a school had developed a correspondence course oriented for parents to use with a small group.

The Americans formed a society, mainly for social purposes, but also in order to systematically recognize their heritage and citizenship (even though many of their children became Mexican citizens). Henry O'Leary was elected president of the society. A common concern of all members was the education of their children. O'Leary understood this well, because as most parents in the early days, he had sent his children to the States for high school because the mothers simply could not provide all that was needed for children of that age. O'Leary proposed that the society found an American School, operate it and develop it to be responsive to the needs of the children and youth. With feelings of relief and enthusiasm, the first American School in Latin America came into existence.

Through mixed marriages, citizenship preferences, third country nationals with similar problems but consistent educational goals, the American School within a few years had 60% U.S. children, 30% Mexican children and 10% of 18 other nationalities. Its major purpose was to prepare the student for entrance to U.S. and European higher education.

About the same time that Henry O'Leary died after a very long and prosperous life, the precepts of the Mexican revolution were felt in all schools. All schools were to teach Spanish, Mexican history and culture and conform to National programs. As Mexico evolved to more power over education delegated to the Mexican states, foreign schools, such as the American School developed a dual curriculum, half the time in the U.S. program and half in the official program.

Many policies and beliefs contributed to the demand for a U.S. type education. U.S. business and industry and government expanded in the 1930–1960 period and expansion required U.S. personnel and they required education for their dependents. Higher education in the U.S. had largely replaced Europe for families who

could afford higher education; many Mexicans believed that Mexico and the U.S. would always be linked and that a knowledge of English would be invaluable, a booming industry provided many jobs, but better jobs for bilingual people.

By the mid 1950's, the Mexican government limited severely the number of foreigners who could work in Mexico and developed a policy of majority ownership of business and industry and required plans for training Mexicans to fill technical and professional positions and drastically reduce non-Mexican employees.

The American School continued to grow but at a slower pace. For example, Henry O'Leary's grandson, Enrigue O'Leary Gomez, the majority owner of Fibras, S. A. (synthetic fibers), enrolled his children in the American School which continued basically as a college preparatory school but for higher education in Mexico or in the United States.

VIGNETTE

Jack Park: Keep Companies Out of Running Schools

Jack Park was a company man and knew his business. He had been an early wildcatter in East Texas and, as most others, could function as roughneck, tool pusher, production foreman or manager. He joined the company as a foreign crew manager when he sold his independent rig. His speciality was to go into a new potential oil field in one of his company's foreign operations and start drilling and production. Initially, he had few personnel problems related to families – a man signed on for a three year contract, left his family at home, lived in the camp, received periodic local leaves and if he didn't like it, there were plenty waiting to take his place. There were many men in the 20's and 30's looking for work. Jack did wonder why more men who were his best and most stable didn't sign on for second and third contracts even though he would not ask his men. He had heard it said that they would take their stake and return to the States to be with their families. Jack reflected that he was with his wife and children in the States about 10% of the time. Privately, he wondered if he really knew them.

Running an oil patch became increasingly complex. Money was made or lost by the nature of the agreement with the local government, by tax laws and their interpretations. Jack was a boomer who believed you struck it and if you did, you had it made; if not, you lost it all and started over; therefore the Houston office necessarily became more involved in operations, and the New York office started to develop cost effective studies and to develop policies for international operations.

Shortly thereafter, Jack was transferred to South America as a Field Superintendent. The company operation was more complex and had a General Manager. In fact the company was only half owned by Jack's company and the General Manager was responsible to an interlocking board representing the operating company, the 25% shareholding company, the pipeline company and the cracking plant (to break down a heavy crude to a lighter fuel oil for the East coast market).

Jack was shocked to learn that employees were on two year contracts and brought their families with them. The company even operated a school which was called the American Staff School. It was limited to children of U.S. technical employees.

The company became more complex: a new refinery had to be constructed, several new pipeline spurs were needed, speciality companies for seismography, drilling mud, and even contract drilling with portable rigs flooded the area. The pipeliners, doodlebuggers, and refinery construction workers – traditionally tran-

sients on a single job – started settling in as relative permanent contract service personnel. They even brought their families with them. Could their children attend the American Staff School?

Meanwhile, the company had employed Dr. Alfredo Oliva as the head of the company clinic and hospital and soon eight other national medical doctors joined him. Two, including Dr. Oliva, had been educated in the U.S. and had married U.S. citizens. Sra. Betty Jane Owens de Oliva wanted to know if her children could attend the American Staff School.

The Minister of Interior of the host country assigned his top Inspector to monitor the company's operations to assure compliance with government requirements. Ing. Arturo Gonzales was a graduate of Texas Tech in petroleum engineering. His wife, Elvira Restrepo de Gonzales, had attended high school in Arlington, Virginia while her father served as ambassador to the United States. Ing. Gonzales asked the General Manager if his children could attend the American Staff School.

The rival Dutch company across the river had three British employees with children. Could they attend the school?

In the staff meeting, Jack Park correctly assessed that the situation was getting out of hand. The General Manager remarked that the company wasn't in the business of running schools. The GM called in the head of the American Staff School and asked him to explore the problem. After consultation with the Industrial Relations office in New York, the school head proposed that an American Community-type School be formed, that each company share in the cost of the initial plant and retain one share per dependent child to assure places for employees' children, and that shareholders would elect a Board for the School, that the Board would establish policies and set tuition rates and that the participating companies and anyone else could enroll children in the school if they could pay the tuition and space was available and the school program was compatible with the students' background. A new type of American Sponsored Overseas School was brought into being as it evolved from a company school.

Everyone was happy. Parents previously excluded could enter their children into the ASOS, the company had schooling available at about one-half the previous cost, executive time was not impinged upon. During the next several years the schools evolved in their governance. The shareholders retained corporate control, but parents participated in the election of the Board and hence in policy development. Periodically, however, the shareholders were required to provide capital outlay and to cover deficits. The next year, twelve children, who were dependents of U.S. government employees assigned on a Point IV technical assistance project, entered the school. They asked if it was accredited. Jack said, "What is that?"

VIGNETTE

Frank Bueno: A Visionary of Our Time

Frank was an excellent school superintendent and his school-to-school project with an American Sponsored Overseas School was mutually beneficial to his school system and to the ASOS. He pondered about how to communicate to his town leaders that the international dimension of education was certainly not a luxury or even an option. A goal no less important than survival may well be what society was deciding to opt for. What was his role to assure the overall critical balance? Two of his board members wanted to know what their school system was doing wasting time with a foreign school when they had so many problems of their own. The

people weren't paying their taxes for him to run around all over the world.

VIGNETTE

William Soloman: Informed and Wise

Dr. William Soloman possessed a rare combination of knowledge and wisdom. Even though he had never worked directly in an ASOS, he had worked with them and been their advocate during most of his professional life. For the past several years, he had been responsible for the accreditation of secondary schools in a geographic region of the United States as well as for one of the overseas regions (the various regional accreditation associations had agreed to a division of responsibility for regions of the world and types of schools on a geographic and functional basis). Work with a group of overseas schools had sharpened Soloman's perspective about accreditation. He had understood for many years that the assumption basic to accreditation must be that a school would voluntarily subject itself to outside and disinterested evaluation and be judged more in terms of planned and continuous improvement than in meeting quantitative requirements. Progress toward goals a school set for itself in terms of its own purposes and objectives, with a minimal number of quantitative standards was far more effective in improving a school than following a guide imposed from an outside group. Based on his experiences with hundreds of schools, he understood that the line between an accredited and an unaccredited school had become less well defined as the various states had become more actively involved in establishing minimum standards for schools, and schools had become much more than merely institutions to prepare youth for higher education. He also understood the intangible power of accreditation, and thus recognized the value of requiring minimum salary schedules (even though these appeared to be giving way to collective bargaining with 38 states now having legislation authorizing public employees and teachers to bargain), having a librarian, a counselor, and a reasonable class size. Probably of equal importance was the capability of an accrediting group to require clear and appropriate roles for school board members and school administrators and the development of policy.

Work within a large group of schools outside of the U.S. gave Soloman perspective. He was responsible not only for accreditation of the ASOS in one region of the world, but also for other schools in that same region, particularly church-related schools. He learned early that schools are more different than alike in many cases but that the ASOS was truly unique. Without exception, each ASOS was operated as a system rather than as a group of schools within a system. Thus articulation among early childhood, elementary, middle and secondary programs was simplified. He quickly developed a principle that transcended any accreditation principle – that if schools were to be improved, that such improvement could better occur within a formal linkage than in a void. This seemed particularly true in the ASOS which – unlike U.S. schools – was usually not responsible to any outside agency. U.S. schools, with federal, state, and sometimes local legislation; with State Education Agencies and Federal agencies and others, were consistently monitored and somewhat controlled. The ASOS was controlled primarily in matters unrelated to education except for national programs in a few cases. Yes, the ASOS was unique and required more administrative interpretations if a relationship was to be maintained. The individual school within a U.S. school system, however, tended to become fragmented from the total system. Was the ASOS a microcosm of what levels of education should be? How they should articulate?

Dr. Soloman had worked with the ASOS long enough to see concrete results in their improvement. He was heard on a number of occasions to remark "we have seen the typical ASOS come out of the cellars and converted family dwellings called schools into new and modern school plants; we have seen the administrators and teachers who were hired off of the street because they spoke English replaced with professionals who are as competent as those in any school – our task and our challenge is to see this happen to each and every ASOS, the bad examples of U.S. education overseas damage not only themselves but all of us. Within many overseas school systems, we have also seen a miniature example of cooperation between levels of education which has had as a net result better education at each level."

Bill Soloman had a high level of tolerance for flak. Many of his counterparts believed that accreditation must be a rigid application of principles and standards applied in a process and a manner which had no exceptions. Of course they believed that the assumption basic to accreditation was simply that a school met sets of minimum standards which were carefully verified on a periodic basis. One said "if you make an exception for one school, you are open to criticism if you ever turn down a school for that reason." Dr. Soloman wondered about the future of accreditation. He knew it would survive but he wondered about its future form. He wondered more, however, about the future of the world.

A group of school superintendents had studied the concept of school organization through a systems approach. It was odd that they had always been a school "system." This concept – viewing a school as a system with parts linked by processes – appeared to provide a viable direction for their school systems. They could integrate many of the improved techniques and manage a variety of complex solutions. This thrust toward modern organization provided a systematic and unified approach to the improvement of all schools within each school system. Each superintendent was excited about the potential to be able to improve all schools in his system by this "systems" approach. Each school could be responsive to its student body but all of the interdependent parts (subsystems) could be understood. Only one major problem constrained development – regional accreditation requirements were designed for individual schools within a system and with one exception treated only secondary education. Since colleges accrediting high schools to enable their graduates to pursue higher education had not been a viable objective for several decades, they wondered why accreditation continued to fragment the levels of education.

The superintendents represented the 50 largest urban school systems in the U.S. and their needs were critical. Two conflicting resolutions were introduced in the 1976 meeting:

> "Resolved that the Council establish an accrediting function responsive to the needs of urban and other school systems and that this new agency will function nationwide for school systems which choose to view all schools within their system as equally important and as operating in concert as a part of a total system."
>
> "Resolved that the Executive Committee of this Council meet with Dr. William Soloman and seek his advice about matters of accreditation of concern to this Council and solicit from him recommendations for further action."

The deliberation and debate on the two resolutions began.

Premises

The following premises relate to the School Institutionalization category of the Research Matrix.

Premise: American-type overseas schools, including the American Sponsored Overseas School (ASOS), were originated for many different purposes – some have changed or evolved, others have not – and in each case the controlling group may be expected to have a rationale for the philosophy and objectives it follows.

For examples: (1) some schools were founded and are operated for the purpose of providing an education that resembles as closely as possible a typical U.S. school, (2) others were founded and operated to provide education to an international pupil population with a bilingual program, (3) some were founded for the purpose of providing a national program with an excellent opportunity to learn English, (4) others for a U.S. program and an excellent opportunity to learn the language of the host country. The common thread is that all schools operate to meet a need of a group that is large enough or capable enough to support it.

Premise: An ASOS may operate under many different types of ownership and governance; however ownership is related to ultimate control (not profit) and governance is usually responsive to both ownership and parents.

For examples: (1) many companies or individuals own or control shares or bonds with the major rights thereinto appertaining being assurance of places in the school for employee's children (or their own children) and usually with voting privileges to elect all or part of the school board, (2) governance through a school board for the purposes of trusteeship and policy approval with a chief school officer (superintendent, director, principal or headmaster) responsible for administrative functions is common in all schools except profit making schools in which participation in governance is usually limited to an advisory capacity.

Premise: Overseas schools operate relatively free from formal control over quality; therefore voluntary control through accreditation by U.S. regional agencies is of greater than normal importance.

For examples: (1) Private schools in the U.S. are subject to many formal controls including statutory ones to assure that children and parents are not exploited by schools operating with undertrained or unqualified faculty and staff, in unsafe or unsanitary facilities, *et cetera*, irrespective of profit, (2) ASOS are subject to few if any formal controls related to quality; control is usually limited to the requirement that a program be offered, nationality of teachers teaching certain subjects and other requirements unrelated to quality, (3) school boards in the ASOS operate with few if any external constraints except as they agree to voluntarily through U.S. accreditation, (4) accreditation by U.S. agencies has probably been more effective in fostering quality education in some overseas regions than any other factor; in other regions, however, some agencies have not been responsive and their impact is relatively insignificant even though their potential is great.

Premise: Policy development in the ASOS is more critical than usual because of high turnover of board members, superintend-

ents, principals, teachers and pupils and as a result of persistent and changing problems in the ASOS related to purpose, personnel function, curriculum, admissions, finance and the school's role in cross cultural education.

Examples: (1) Some school boards without written policies use inordinate amounts of time in decision making about questions that lend themselves to a policy to guide the administrator in decision making; a frequent consequence is that questions of great importance about the future are neglected and crisis administration becomes the mode, (2) many superintendents, lacking policy guidance, tend to make all decisions on an individual basis and become highly vulnerable to charges of favoritism and unfairness, (3) all personnel newly employed by an ASOS, or newly elected to its board, cannot provide continuity and even development unless they have available to them policies developed and tested over a reasonable period of time.

Premise: The ASOS has established a variety of interinstitutional relationships including U.S. government, accrediting agencies, schools, universities and professional associations; and with each other. These relationships are characterized by their unevenness in being of benefit to either party and ultimately, success appears to be based on mutual benefit and commitment.

Examples are: (1) the primary obligation of the U.S. government is to assure insofar as possible adequate educational opportunity for dependents of U.S. government employees posted overseas and this is reflected in the purposes for which funds are made available, and secondary obligations are to foster mutual respect and understanding among peoples of the world and the U.S. and to demonstrate U.S.-type education; these obligations are reflected in ASOS relations with U.S. government, (2) ASOS frequently relate to U.S. schools in school-to-school projects and these have ranged to outstandingly successful to insignificant; exchange of personnel and materials fosters cross cultural understanding and results in better personnel; linkage provides opportunities for joint projects – the committed and bold are successful, the reluctant and unimaginative are pedestrian, (3) the ASOS in cooperation with each other in geographic regions through regional associations provide valuable opportunities for learning from each other about problem solving and potentials and provides the vehicle for cooperative action for purposes such as joint use of consultants and the development of in-service programs with U.S. universities.

Conspectus of Research

The Research Matrix category, School Institutionalization, includes studies concerned with four major aspects of the ASOS: institutional foundations, purpose (objectives), sources of support and inter-institutional relationships.

Two of the studies had as their central emphasis the origins and historical development of particular American overseas schools. Beans (1968) traced the historical development of the ASOS in Sao Paulo, Brazil, from 1920 to 1965. He then described the school as it was functioning in 1965 and evaluated its effectiveness in its contributions to world understanding. Beans, in concluding his study, made 16 recommendations for improvement of ASOS operations in Sao Paulo and elsewhere. These included: increased government assistance and cooperation, staff improvement, establishment of written policies and equitable salary schedules, the need to involve local culture and local educational institutions and curricular improvements.

Ronsheim (1967) traced the origins and development of the International School in Geneva and the European School in Luxembourg from 1918 to 1966. The study also surveyed the origins and development of international schools in Western Europe in general. Factors in development during the period between the two world wars were identified and compared. The author described the different types of international schools and formulated criteria for identifying a 'true' international school. The criteria were validated by means of a questionnaire sent to school directors. Seven major and nine minor criteria were validated. The major criteria included:

- –promotion of international understanding
- –balanced muiti-national student body and faculty
- –balanced board control
- –bilingual or multi-lingual teaching
- –multi-national or international curricula
- –preparation for university entrance in more than one country

The minor criteria included:

- –modest tuition or no fees
- –enrollment of host country children
- –merged national curriculum streams
- –instruction in the local language
- –unbiased teaching materials
- –impartial school evaluation
- –international sponsorship
- –no single ideology taught
- –absence of profit motive

The author examined the two schools previously mentioned in light of these criteria and found that the International School in Geneva met the major criteria until 1956 and now no longer qualifies. The European School in Luxembourg does meet the criteria within its regional limitations. The study also included a report on the status of the international schools movement.

Several other studies describe as background information the origins and development of ASOS in various parts of the world. Mannino (1971) described the general characteristics of origin of ASOS throughout the world; Orr (1964), McGugan (1970) and Fraser (1970) describe the origin of ASOS in Latin America. Sequist (1968) and Crowl (1972) report the origin and development of the ASOS in Colombia, and McWhorter (1969) briefly presents the origin of ASOS in Venezuela.

Fox (1969) examined the question of accreditation in the ASOS. He traced the history of accreditation association involvement in overseas education and made a comparative examination of accredited and non-accredited schools in Latin America. Significant differences were found in the areas of salary, educational preparation of teachers, existence of counseling and guidance facilities and library resources. Little or no differences were found in pupil-teacher ratio and per pupil expenditure.

A study related to the accreditation of overseas schools was conducted by Cutting (1969). The study involved the development of a computerized reporting process for the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. The data utilized to test the computer program developed was the accreditation data reported by ASOS in Latin America. The program allows

storage of accreditation data over a long range period which then enables easy retrieval for comparison on the variety of accreditation measures.

Two studies closely examined the purposes and objectives of ASOS in Latin America and attempted to assess the extent to which the schools' programs and operations were realizing their goals.

Young (1960) investigated the potential of the ASOS in Latin America for improving Inter-American relations. The author formulated international education objectives judged realizable in the ASOS in Latin America and surveyed the schools' directors to determine the extent to which they felt that the schools were achieving these objectives. Nine objectives were formulated:

1. Promote U.S. – Latin American friendships
2. Help interpret one culture to the other
3. Develop understanding and respect for the ways of life of others
4. Help provide leaders for the host country
5. Foster self-development, self-realization and self-improvement
6. Teach English to Latin American students and Spanish to North American students
7. Utilize and demonstrate U.S. instructional methods
8. Offer academic programs acceptable to both the U.S. and host country
9. Provide educational leadership for the host country.

All responding directors agreed that these objectives were valid for their schools. However, the schools were not doing the kind of things necessary for the achievement of these objectives. Young concluded that more direction, supervision and professional assistance would be needed before any of the given objectives could be considered accomplished in the group of schools studied.

Orr's (1964) study of binational schools in Latin America described 1) their origins, 2) chief characteristics, 3) objectives, 4) chief problems, 5) pursuance of stated objectives, 6) adaptation and contributions to national systems, 7) potential for future growth and 8) necessary changes. The study utilized a questionnaire which surveyed the administration, organization, curricula, personnel, financing and facilities of the schools, and in-depth case studies of six binational schools in Mexico were conducted. Also the study included an assessment of the Mexican-American schools against the historical background of education in Mexico. Orr found that the binational schools were inadequate representatives of U.S. education; there was little cross-cultural research or experimentation being conducted, and generally the schools were not well-conceived in relation to their settings. All had administration/organization, finance, curriculum/instructional and personnel problems. Orr concluded also that objectives were imprecise and tended to "idealize if not romanticize intercultural education." In addition, instructional programs were not related to stated objectives. Orr commented:

> Stated objectives are historically irrelevant to the schools themselves, low motivators of actual school behavior and possibly irrelevant in the culture in which the schools operate.

He recommended that new models of organization and new approaches to teaching were required.

Aspects of inter-institutional relationships were explored by several studies.

Counce (1971) investigated the progress and effectiveness of the School-to-School projects sponsored by the U.S. Department of State between ASOS and stateside school systems. The study utilized a questionnaire to elicit reactions on the part of both stateside and ASOS personnel participating in school-to-school activities. Some of the findings included:

1) Involvement of teachers in overseas teaching experience had promoted individual understanding and knowledge necessary to quality performance in teaching. (94% positive)
2) Exchange of human resources has been successful. (83% positive: 88% stateside, 78% overseas)
3) School-to-School experiences have helped host country teachers to be more effective in their teaching-learning experiences. (79% positive)
4) School-to-School projects have improved relationships between host country teachers and North American teachers. (78% positive)
5) There was evidence of better attitudes toward the U.S. education by host country teachers. (74% positive)

Counce concluded that more needed to be done in permitting teachers from the overseas schools more experience in the stateside system.

Sokol (1972) designed a study that was a comparative analysis of five binational secondary schools in Colombia and ten representative private Colombian secondary schools. He found the ASOS to: (1) provide higher salary ranges and more fringe benefits, (2) require more teacher work hours per week, (3) have lower pupil-teacher classroom ratios, (4) have more adequate library facilities, (5) have higher tuition, (6) provide more classroom equipment and teaching aids, and (7) utilize more educational specialists and furnish more student services. There were negligible differences in the number of teacher work days per year, length of school days, instructional methods and levels of professional staff training. Sokol also reported the constraints on joint projects and made recommendations for improved relations with the Colombian educational community. Constraints perceived by the surveyed administrators included: National curriculum inflexibility, calendar differences, language barriers, cultural isolation and lack of inter-school channels of communication. Recommendations for improved relations included:

1) Establishment of formal visitation programs
2) A series of inter-school administrative conferences to establish cooperative programs and resolve common problems
3) Joint staff teacher workshops conducted in Spanish
4) Student and teacher exchange programs between the binational and neighboring Colombian schools
5) A reorganization of the Association of Colombian-Caribbean Binational Schools to include an executive officer to coordinate support services.

The concept of regional associations, consortia and university relationships were not found as a central focus of any of the studies examined. However, Seaquist's study described the development and advantages of the Association of Binational Schools in Colombia and Haiti. McWhorter's study describes the association in Venezuela. Seaquist, in addition, traced the development of the Association's re-

lationship with the University of Alabama. He reported that the Association has a long term contract with the University which is funded to provide: graduate courses in Education, various types of consultative services, general assistance in curriculum and materials development, guidance and counseling, testing and evaluation. Seaquist also reports quantative information on the types of activities and extent of participation during school years 1966 to 1968.

Mannino's study reports examples of A/OS-university relationships and regional associations and develops a strategy for the expansion of these types of associations to form the basis for a new kind of system structure for institutional improvement overseas. This structure would be composed of a limited number of "producer" schools that are committed to the tasks of resource building among a group of client or satellite "consumer" schools.

One aspect of the relationship between the U.S. government and A/OS is treated by McGugan's study (1970). McGugan traced the development of U.S. government sponsorship of the ASOS through the authorizing legislations and policy statements of the U.S. Department of State. He analyzed the 44 ASOS in Latin America on the basis of the quantitative measures by which school adequacy or quality is generally assessed: personnel qualifications, salaries, personnel continuity, programs offered, expenditures, and compares the five Latin American ASOS that have been designated U.S. Government Sponsored on these measures. Little consistency was found among the five schools. McGugan then developed guidelines by which the criteria used to designate these schools, the adequacy concept, could be examined.

McWhorter (1969) made a comparative analysis of the binational schools in Colombia and Venezuela. The areas in which the schools in the two countries were compared included: origin, type of sponsorship, programs offered, personnel characteristics and qualifications, student body composition, salaries, fringe benefits and in-service opportunities, and problems encountered. The schools examined in Venezuela included company and proprietary schools in addition to the ASOS. They generally differed from the Colombian binational schools in purpose, offering only a U.S. program while the Colombian binational schools generally offered both U.S. and Colombian programs. Also they had much higher average salary. Problems encountered were similar; but one difference was that the school directors in Venezuela reported much less difficulty recruiting teachers. Cooperation between schools in Venezuela occurred on an informal basis as the need arose, while the Colombian schools had formed an association to coordinate mutual assistance efforts.

Bruce (1973) conducted a study concerning possible cooperative action among five European schools.

Cooperative action among and between schools remains elusive for most schools, however.

Perhaps the most frequently reported problem deals directly or indirectly with the fact that most ASOS are underfinanced. Even though support by U.S. government and other support is a critical part of the ASOS budget, it is relatively insignificant as a percentage of the budget. The ASOS is operated for most practical purposes by income from tuition and fees.

VIGNETTE

John Traxworth: Organizing for the Complexities

John had been a career school administrator in U.S. public schools for twelve years after teaching science for three years. He accepted an assignment as superintendent of an ASOS. The ASOS appeared to be a manageable assignment from a normal administrative point of view. All of the students – an early childhood (N-2), an elementary school (3-5), a middle school (6-8) and a high school (9-12) – were located on one campus and operated as one school system, there were only 2150 students enrolled and the school owned and operated its own buses and cafeteria and the athletic program was low profile. John's only unstated concern was that it appeared to him that the ASOS had a serious over-supply of non-teaching personnel. Wisely, he decided to settle into the job before he made any substantial changes. Fortunately, when he arrived in late summer, most of the actions necessary to get school underway appeared to have been completed and school started with little effort or action on his part.

During the second week of school two actions occurred which stimulated him to decide to study his administrative organization sooner than he had planned to. First, a new board member who also had just arrived from the States on his first foreign assignment, visited him in his office. He had been a school board member in the Southwestern U.S. and had always been interested in budgets. He maintained that since he was new on the board and John was new as superintendent, that neither was responsible for what he had found when he analyzed the budget. He discovered that only 65% was allocated for actual classroom instruction. He hadn't completed the analysis but he knew that the ratio was far out of line with the 80-85% which was acceptable in the Southwest.

The second action occurred the next day when a delegation of teachers, led by a new social studies teacher from Michigan and by a representative from the local chapter of the host country teacher's union met with Superintendent Traxworth. They assured him full cooperation and advised him that they would like to have a copy of the budget so that they could ascertain that expenditures were appropriately balanced, particularly in relation to teachers' salaries (especially differentials) and the direct cost of instruction related to all other costs. John advised him that he would take up their request with the board.

Most of John's second week on the job was consumed in thinking about the two visits from the board member and the group of teachers. On Monday morning of the third week John became immersed in administering the school. At 8:00 a.m. the Assistant Superintendent for Personnel advised him that four new U.S. teachers had irregularities in their immigration documents and would have to be suspended from teaching (with pay) until the problem could be resolved. This wasn't too bad though, because it was simply a technicality but that the four would have to leave the country for the nearest neighboring country, go to the host country embassy located there, get temporary work permits for three months, and that during that time he could probably solve the problem. The legal fee in each case was $150.00 (paid by the school). The serious problem presented to John, however, was that if any repetition of illegal working by teachers occurred, that he would be liable to criminal charges and automatic loss of his own work permit. He advised the Assistant for Personnel to handle the problem and to give it top priority, including the

development of a better system of personnel services to assure that this didn't happen again.

At 8:45 a.m. the transportation supervisor had an emergency situation develop. The local police in a suburb where 37 ASOS students lived had arrested the bus driver and impounded the 60 passenger bus because a new ordinance restricted any bus to operate in that suburb with a capacity of more than 32. The school had already contracted with the parents to provide transportation for their children. The supervisor needed some answers and not only for those 37 students because the now impounded bus also made a run in another adjoining suburb for 23 other students. John called his Administrative Assistant and shared the problem with him and asked him to handle it. The Assistant called the School Lawyer, who was busy with work on the documents for the illegal teachers, and asked him to take the necessary steps to get the bus returned. He then contacted a bus contracting firm and arranged for four mini-buses to make the next day's run -- the day rate was high but there was no other choice. Next the Assistant called the school's Purchasing Agent and asked him to get some bids on mini-buses. The Purchasing Agent had just returned from the custom's office where he had spent five weeks making all of the necessary arrangements to get the textbooks ordered from the U.S. seven months earlier. The glassware for chemistry had been confiscated because importation of glassware was prohibited. (The year before it was allowed with a duty charge of 200%). The lawyer and the Purchasing Agent both called the Superintendent to check if the Administrative Assistant had the authority to authorize them to proceed.

At 10:30 a.m., the cashier in the Business Manager's office notified him that an agency which had always paid a semester's tuition in advance (as required by board policy) for all of the dependent children now would not pay until after completion of the services (which meant the end of the semester). Without this payment, the Business Manager would be unable to meet the December payroll (which, as required by law, included an extra one-half month's salary). By 11:00 a.m. he was in the Superintendent's office for guidance. The minimum interest rate at the bank was 20% if they had to float a loan.

During the lunch hour, the Director of Food Services for the school remarked to one of the teachers that she had been amazed when she had visited, as part of a school-to-school project, a U.S. school cafeteria. Through system-wide menu planning, centralized quantity purchasing and those marvelous provisions for quantity food preparation, the U.S. school had operated the food service with a fraction of the employee cost. The ASOS Director of Food Services planned her menus on a daily basis, shopped for food early in the morning at the market and had never, before her trip to Memphis, seen food available for quantity cooking. She had three women to just clean the fresh vegetables, and when the PTA president was around, to soak them in a chlorine solution. She had hoped to have lunch with the new Superintendent and ask for a new panel truck and a driver for food shopping, but he didn't come to the cafeteria on this day. She simply had to have someone to drive the truck; she couldn't do it any longer, with more parking problems every day, and still get back to the school in time for lunch to be prepared. She longed for the time when the school had dismissed for two hours for lunch and she had, with one helper, prepared only a snack for the faculty during their break.

John spent the early afternoon, which seemed unusually quiet, reflecting on the problems of that morning. About 4:00 p.m. that afternoon, he thought he would

relax with an early round of golf. At 4:05 the school's Coordinator for National Programs burst into the office to advise the Superintendent that the office of the National Inspector from the Ministry had called and that the Inspector would arrive at the school at 5:00 p.m. to discuss an important matter. The Coordinator thought it may relate to the conditions of the suspension of National Examinations which had been granted to the ASOS two years earlier. He had spent a great part of his time on this problem because the exams were incompatible with the school curriculum; he briefed the superintendent while they waited for the Inspector who arrived at 5:40. The Inspector simply wished to welcome John and to assure him that the Ministry would continue to work with the school in trying to solve the many problems the school encountered with exceptions to federal law. He also mentioned that his two grandchildren who were in the ASOS elementary school were doing well.

John arrived home at 7:45 and felt he had earned his money that day. Dinner, a quiet hour and bed appealed to him strongly. His wife brought him a drink, told him to relax for a minute and then get cleaned up and dressed -- they were to be at the Board President's home at 9:00 p.m. for cocktails and dinner. John wished he hadn't skipped lunch. That night, the Board President urged John to spend most of his time on community relations and keeping the board members informed about the school.

On Tuesday morning, the Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum had an appointment to meet with the Superintendent to discuss the Special English classes which were designed for non-English speaking children who entered the school. Forty-six different nationalities and eighteen different first languages were represented in the student body. She was convinced that instruction could be substantially improved if a supervisor with some psycholinguistic training could be employed to help the Special English teachers. Currently they were really doing little more than tutoring the children with methods and materials they had used as elementary school teachers to teach reading. This approach was based very simply on an underlying assumption that the "process of transfer" from auditory to visual was as valid for learning a second language as for one's native language. She knew, however, that the truth was that the teachers were teaching the way they knew how to teach. She wondered if the new superintendent recognized the complexity of teaching English as a second language.

Three months after John's arrival at the ASOS, the faculty representative asked him about their request for the budget. John had forgotten about it. He felt overpowered by the multitude of demands on his time but increasingly realized that all of the demands, questions, and requests for decisions had to be handled.

The Regional Association of American Sponsored Overseas Schools was scheduled to meet the next week in an adjoining country. He looked forward to a break and to an opportunity to discuss his situation with his counterparts in other ASOS.

In December, John began preparing his plans for the next year's budget. The timing was important because recruiting had to begin no later than January, books and supplies had to be ordered six months in advance, and many other similar needs caused the ASOS to do advanced planning. His first priority was the Organization. John knew that the demands were far greater and more complex than he had understood. He thought that before he could even get time to think, that he needed help. His first priority in his proposed budget was for a Deputy Superintendent.

As John walked toward the conference room for the December meeting of the

Board, the new board member from the Southwest hailed him and with enthusiasm stated that he was looking forward to hearing the budget presentation and particularly how John planned to reduce non-teaching personnel costs.

VIGNETTE

Vincent Giambardo: A Common Dilemma

Vincent was a career foreign service officer with five children, all of school age. He had served in five different countries, three of which had different languages. He was deeply committed to improved international understanding; he was equally committed to a good education for his children. With so many moves – one about every two years – the continuity of his children's education was of increasing concern. They had attended ASOS with dual curricula in Mexico (English/Spanish), Haiti (English/French), Brazil (English/Portuguese) and in the other two countries ASOS were not available, so the children attended local national schools. In England, the metric system was taught and in Australia the reading program was substantially different. Each of these also caused difficulty for his children.

His new post on this summer day in 1980 was a Near East country. He was elected to the Board of the ASOS. During the past three years, the school had admitted 300 national children. The major question before the Board was how to convert from a rather standard U.S. curriculum to meet the new National government requirement that all schools must devote at least one half of each day to the national program, including the Persian language. Vincent wished fervently for that idealized but non-existent standard curriculum for dependents of transient U.S. government employees.

Vince had a double vodka martini, retrieved his brief case, and headed for the board meeting hoping that someone could come up with an answer.

VIGNETTE

Sam Skinflint: Right for the Wrong Reason

Sam was Board President and the school was going broke. It had served U.S. children and only U.S. children for 37 years. Fewer and fewer Americans were coming in new; the largest group was the old timers and their children were grown. Financial stability depended on a higher enrollment. Sam decided that the only solution was to open up enrollment to National kids.

VIGNETTE

Marshal Ainsworth: Opportunity for Exclusiveness

Marshall Ainsworth believed in private schools. He abhorred the American influence on international schools with silly notions of mass education and something called "meeting the needs of each child" and "starting where he was." This abecedarian understanding of quality and standards constituted no less than a lapse in mental capacities in his judgment. He was so very delighted to find at his new foreign post so many Americans with compatible views. He quickly and easily concluded that American advocates of populism were confined to the middle and lower classes. He had feared that reports he had heard of the ASOS being quasi-public were true and that the International School at his new post may admit "just anyone." He was particularly concerned because it was the only English-speaking school available and would thereby have pressure on it to reduce standards. How delighted he was to learn that his third son, a bright lad, who was to start high school

the next week would attend a school of high standards. Mrs. Ainsworth was particularly concerned with little Joey, coming so late in life – she believed firmly that he should have the same advantages of a private education that their older children had received and which had served them well. After all, two had even completed master's degrees at prestigious universities.

Miss Geneva Stadt the admissions officer at the International School, completed the administration of the battery of tests for admission. Fourteen students had applied for admission to the high school.

She was fortunate to have found a position so compatible with her situation. Having taught chemistry in an Eastern private school fourteen years and being an outspoken advocate for high standards, she was appalled when the school employed a counselor and a school psychologist. From that moment, standards were abolished. They started "using" test results as a part of admissions but eliminated cut-off scores. Miss Stadt was advised that the principal purpose of the testing program was to guide pupils adequately and to predict their success in the school. Increasingly, she received students in her class, bright though they were, who simply did not reflect the discipline and conformity that she believed you could get with cut-off scores on ability and achievement tests. She knew she would leave when she could.

The position at the International School was half-time teacher of chemistry and half-time admissions officer. Just as important to Miss Stadt was the fact that the school did not have a counselor around to cause trouble – the Stanford achievement and Otis intelligence tests worked as well as anything would to assure that only the right children were accepted. There was enough otiositic behavior in the public schools without encouraging indolence in the few good private schools left (before she left the East, a decade ago, a parent who taught at the local university had the audacity to suggest that she change to the chemical bond curriculum). She enjoyed her role and took quiet but sometimes puzzled satisfaction in the appeasement it provided for her own needs.

With the quixotic efficiency for which she was known and through which she upheld the standards of education, she prepared a standardized notice of rejection for admission and posted it to Mr. Marshall Ainsworth.

Joey's grade placement averaged 10.7 and the International School required a minimum of 11.0 to enter the tenth grade. As she frequently told the parents, the school, as a minimum, was a "cut above the average."

Premises

The following premises relate to the School Organization and Administrative category of the Research Matrix.

Premise: The Administrative Structure of the ASOS is very complex and extensive as a natural consequence of its nature and the unique demands made on it.

For examples: (1) recruiting and employing personnel from great distances is difficult and expensive, (2) school responsibilities for legal entry into the country by personnel in which the ASOS is located are increasingly complex and restrictive, but at best require substantial management time, (3) relations – public and statutory – with host country government are demanding of time and energy, (4) creating and maintaining adequate understanding about the ASOS with its clientele is

extraordinarily demanding of time because of high turnover, lack of comparable experience, and the ASOS's normal state of condition, (5) binational and bilingual programs require a high level of coordination, (6) the exigent nature of financing the ASOS requires involvement in fund raising activities, and (7) provisions for maintaining and improving the school through in-service education for faculty and staff are complex and expensive because of relative isolation from sources of assistance.

Premise: The administrative mode in the ASOS varies significantly as a function of the background and beliefs of the superintendent and the board, and combined with the dynamic nature of the ASOS and high turnover rates, results in styles and patterns of administration which vary substantially according to people rather than precepts of administrative roles related to positions.

For examples: (1) The administrative mode in the ASOS tends to be informal under conditions in which all members of the administrative group function as a team; functioning as a team tends to depend on leadership and understanding of primary responsibilities, (2) administrative mode tends to become more formal as position requirements become more rigid and responsibilities more detailed and delimited, and (3) the more insecure the superintendent, the more he tends to compartmentalize leadership functions and the more status quo oriented the school program becomes.

Premise: Employee benefits and concomitant personnel policies appropriate and fair to personnel with widely ranging training and value to the ASOS, and the need to relocate some personnel, are persistent but critical challenges to the ASOS school boards.

For examples: (1) Many schools are budgeted on the basis of different policies and salary schedules for locally employed personnel irrespective of training, experience or merit and any change would require drastic changes in the school's budget such as increases in tuition or lowering of some existing salaries, (2) the cost for a teacher to relocate from the U.S. to another country is a real cost including disposing in the U.S. of goods, higher cost for housing and transportation at the new site, *et cetera*, and recruiting of U.S. personnel would be seriously constrained without some subsidy, (3) a teacher with training, experience and performance equal to that of another should not be paid more or less for performing the same job, and (4) employee benefits should include equitable salary benefits for equal work and performance, relocation allowances as appropriate and cost of living differentials where they exist (including school tuition costs); many models including those for U.S. government employees are available.

Conspectus of Research

This category includes studies concerning three major aspects of school organization and administration: administrative structure, functions and provision for supportive services.

Seaquist (1968) developed a planning base for the binational schools in Colombia and Haiti. The study presented: (1) the history of the ASOS in the Latin American environment, (2) a quantitative and factual comparison of the schools in the Colombian-American Binational School Association including data on governance,

policy, administration. program, personnel and pupils, (3) a description of the development of the relationship between the schools and a university, and (4) an assessment of the schools in light of the principles and standards of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS). The study also included a projection of personnel needs for the subsequent five year period. Seaquist made the following recommendations and assessment of needs: (1) There is a need for better planning based on more carefully derived information, (2) school philosophy and objectives need to be re-examined, (3) there is the need to broaden and enrich the present curricula, (4) new financing sources need to be sought, (5) personnel policies need to be modernized, and (6) the schools need to cooperate among themselves more effectively.

Mannino (1971) also presented a personnel data base for the ASOS throughout the world and developed a comprehensive strategy for personnel improvement.

Tudor (1972) developed a process model for differentiated staffing in the ASOS in Mexico City, Mexico. Recognizing the problems of recruiting well-qualified teachers, he reported that the concept of differentiated staffing was highly appropriate for the ASOS. The study provided a plan for effectively utilizing teacher competencies in a context where teacher supply is limited, salaries are low and effective teachers are hard to find. The plan also provided for more individualization of instruction by extending the teacher's skills through the use of a teaching team. The composition of the teaching team included: (1) professional certified teachers, (2) student teachers/interns, (3) clerical personnel and (4) non-professional teacher aides. The model included the career ladder aspect of differentiated staffing which provides the vehicle for on-the-job training of National teachers.

A minor aspect of Fraser's study (1971) provided information concerning assignment of personnel in the language programs of eight ASOS in Latin America. The percentage of English, Spanish and other language teachers who were teaching in their area of major preparation ranged from a low of 28 percent to a high of 78 percent, with an average of 62 percent.

Domidion (1964) examined the role of the administrator in American overseas schools. The study surveyed the general characteristics, practices and problems of the ASOS and revealed the need for a handbook for new administrators in overseas schools. A major portion of the study consists of a guide for overseas school administrators. The guide includes descriptions of staff and pupil personnel characteristics and possible problem areas; school programs, provision of instructional leadership, suggestions for developing and improving school-community relations; and information on office, business and plant management. The guide also contained an annotated bibliography of additional materials and sources of assistance to the new administrator.

In Bjork's study (1965), selected data in intercultural education, as related to cross-cultural understandings were synthesized and multivariant social, cultural and educational factors were conceptualized to generate some theoretical models. The study included a philosophical, historical and geographical framework of culture in Latin America to provide a context in which cross-cultural factors in education could be analyzed. Elements of Latin American culture were compared and contrasted in a cross-cultural analysis with Anglo-American culture within the context of a case study of a binational school in Latin America. Results of the analysis were used to develop some theoretical models relating educational administration and intercultural education. The models illustrated the following relationships:

1) between cultural dynanism and intercultural contacts

2) between acculturation and intercultural integration; assimila- and cultural isolation

3) between acceptance of institutional objectives and the cultural identification of objectives

4) between acculturative innovations and cultural dissatisfactions

5) between acculturation of government and education agencies and institutional acculturation programs

6) between institutional abilities to gradate cultural shock and clientele acceptance of the institution as a multicultural institution.

The purpose of the models was to assist in understanding the multi-cultural educational context that is growing in the United States and to help illuminate some of the problems caused by increasing cultural diversities within school organizations and programs designed for homogeneous school clientele.

Werstler (1965) conducted a study related to this matrix category and it provides useful information. The study provided an analysis of current school building practices in relation to education program in six European countries: Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, Belgium and the Netherlands.

SCHOOL PROGRAM

VIGNETTE

Professor Fred Hauer: Consolidation Revisited

Professor Hauer was one of the few people who had maintained contact with the American Sponsored Overseas School for almost a generation. He believed very simply that these schools held great meaning for what education for children should be: many races, nationality groups, ethnic groups, cultural backgrounds, first languages, accents, etcetera, all attending school and learning without any conflict because of these differences. There had to be meaning which in many cases continued to be elusive. Hauer knew that many opportunities were being lost because the American Sponsored Overseas School increasingly was loosing the critical mass of pupils needed to operate a bilingual program as a result of proliferation and splintering. He prepared himself to make a presentation to a joint meeting of representatives from the Boards of three different schools in an area which could probably support only one school. He started—

"As several observers have noted, the American Sponsored Overseas Schools tend to proliferate and splinter. The schools represented at this meeting, all located in a contained area, exemplify the fragmentation of educational opportunities for children whose needs and education aspirations are probably far more similar than they are different.

Almost without exception, the goals which developed in the original American school here were admirable, and perhaps in some cases, idealistic for their time.

The board of control of that school, formally or informally, came to answer yes to a few basic questions:

1. Can a school program be developed and operated in which

children of two or more nationalities and first languages can receive a binational, bilingual education?

2. Can such a program be organized with enough flexibility and expertise to meet the diverse conditions of school families and the children for whom it is designed? That is, can the school indeed be responsive to such varieties of need as different school calendars, preparing children for both National and U.S. Higher Education, accommodating monolingual children at many levels in a primarily bilingual program structure, and so forth?

With such bold aspirations matched with enthusiasm and usually true dedication to their beliefs, the school originally developed in such a manner that these goals were attained.

Even though it is somewhat speculative, I believe there are some identifiable premises from which the founders operated, in many cases, more than a generation ago. I hope this will provide some perspective about the decisions which confront you:

1. The peoples of the world are linked and interdependent, and sooner or later must better understand each other, have greater mutual respect, and be able to communicate better; and an education which does not have these results – which include attitudes as well as skills and knowledge – is not an education which will prepare children for the world of which they are and will be a part.
2. That certain countries offered a unique opportunity to develop such a program: (1) U.S. and third country nationals were present in some number as a result of intergovernmental relations, business, industry and other types of development and exchange of peoples of different nationalities, (2) an interest by many citizens in the host country in an education for their children which would result in a proficiency in the English language, and (3) a posture of tolerance by national governments for private education of great diversity.
3. That the attainment of such an education could be developed only through the concerted effort and involvement of interested and dedicated host country nationals and U.S. citizens.
4. That, though private, the schools would operate as quasi-public in many ways: (1) they would be responsive to a cross section* of children and develop programs of excellence for each child, (2) they would recognize that such a program would require that the policies of the school would require many compromises from both the national and the U.S. systems and structures for education.

*Perhaps the greatest contribution of the U.S. to education has been its ability to demonstrate mass education that provided for the needs of all children. Historically, education had selected only the brightest children for education above the primary level and the success of such a highly selective group was practically assured regardless of the nature and quality of programs and instruction. It is a fact that most very bright children will learn in spite of the schooling they receive whereas it is equally true that most average children will not learn nearly

as much as they are capable of learning unless quality programs and qualified teachers are available to them. Contrary to persistent myths, most very bright children in the U.S. are in public schools; most private schools are not selective and admission (or rejection) policies correlate more significantly with economic status than with intelligence and achievement. This bold notion of mass education and its successful demonstration had a common appeal to peoples throughout the world who subscribed to the democratic process but who knew that democracy is necessarily dependent on an educated populace.

5. They received sustenance and courage from their belief that for many children such an education was superior to one that was either a "transplanted U.S. school" or a national school with an excellent program for teaching children English as a second language.

These premises were perhaps visionary for their time. Approximately 15 years ago a study by Young elicited from the major binational schools in Latin America statements of their objectives. They were:

make classmates and close friends out of future international leaders.

serve as an important agency for local community activity and improvement.

promote programs designed to facilitate the achievement of international objectives and serve as a laboratory for multi-cultural curriculum development.

provide the United States with a large corps of American youth who have knowledge of the languages and cultures of the homes abroad, and who thus represent a youth group with the potential for international service and leadership.

provide the U.S. culture with teachers who have had peacetime overseas teaching experience and multi-cultural orientation.

serve as an ideal overseas assignment center for teachers in American school systems who would benefit from inter-national experience and who would greatly enrich their schools upon their return.

serve as a training ground for student teachers of American colleges and universities to provide multi-cultural experiences for prospective teachers.

In any case, the history and development of these schools resulted in a few guiding principles or criteria which were believed by many to be necessary if the schools were to retain their mission in providing a unique educational opportunity:

1. The board of control should be composed of both National and U.S. citizens.
2. The school program should include intensive study in the culture and language of both the host country and the U.S. and the children should be able to transfer to U.S. schools or host country and continue higher education in either country; or, ideally, in both.
3. Administrative, leadership, and teaching personnel should be qualified superior to their counter-parts in both countries because of the complexity of providing a binational, bicultural and bilingual education; furthermore that the program required a faculty with preparation somewhat balanced by the nature of the program.

4. That the school pupil population should not come to represent only the high socio-economic status of parents; and since the cost of such an education would be higher than average, that an ample number of tuition scholarships would be available so that children would not be automatically excluded because of their parents' economic condition.

Some schools, almost from their inception; and others, at some stage in their development, began to change to schools that did not reflect the idealism and selflessness which the founders of the binational school concept had envisaged:

1. Some became (or reverted shortly) transplanted U.S. schools, little influenced by the culture in which they operated as a result of:
   a. Host country governments denying national children the right to attend the schools,
   b. Boards of Control which rejected the validity of a binational school,
   c. Boards of Control which rejected the criteria; and, often by default, the school lost its viability for host country children, and
   d. Entrepreneurs, who gained control of the schools for the purpose of making a profit; in these few cases, the owner(s) usually play on the fears and/or cultural shock of U.S. citizens by convincing them that their children need the stability which results from a school experience "just like they had at home", i.e., a little transplanted U.S. school.

2. Some became, for all practical purposes, a national school with an excellent program for teaching English as a second language (and sometimes not the latter) because:
   a. In the 1930's and 1940's and in some cases during the 1950's, parents with college-bound children expected them to attend U.S. colleges and universities; later, however, there was greater demand for entrance to National Universities. This was natural and desirable, but many Boards of Control in developing a *bachillerato* program, inadvertently or deliberately weakened the "high school" program to the point that it was no longer responsive to the needs of high school age U.S. children.
   b. Many schools had a relatively stable host country pupil population (i.e. such children entered at the nursery or kindergarten or first grade levels) and a rather transient U.S. pupil population who entered the school at all levels; the net result was that host country national children became bilingual, as a group, much sooner than did U.S. children, as a group. Furthermore, host country children were regularly exposed to their mother tongue in their homes, churches, and communities. With bilinguality being an objective for all children, most schools developed programs which were

bilingual but which provided for the transition of a child from the U.S. until he had learned enough of the second language to succeed to a bilingual program. This plan was a compromise for host country nationals. Later because of economic needs (i.e. more enrollment) or egalitarianism without program planning, non-English speaking children were admitted at all levels of a school without the provision of "special English" programs to parallel the "special Spanish*" programs which had been provided for U.S. children. Thus, a common result was a greater proportionate use of Spanish as the dominant language of instruction; hence many U.S. children, who didn't speak Spanish, no longer had an acceptable option left, and the school became more and more national rather than binational. Furthermore, the English language proficiency of national children dropped not only because of the formal program but also because fewer informal learning experiences were available to which native English speaking children contributed.

c. Many Boards of Control employed a Superintendent who was unqualified or underqualified or incompetent to lead and direct the school; or in many cases, the Board itself, through standing committees, sought to administer the school. In either case, or through a combination of both, schools found that they had not had adequate leadership and planning and were persistently and compellingly involved in "crisis administration" rather than policy development, appraisal, and planning for the short-term and long-term needs of the schools. The crises are well known to many board members:

   1. Simplistic budget planning and/or lack of policy which established an adequate system of control of funds expenditures often resulted in a financial crisis.
   2. A financial crisis often resulted in a lowering of standards, usually by employing more "economical teachers" (undertrained but available) which in turn usually resulted in a dip in enrollment which intensified the financial crisis rather than solving it.
   3. Incorrectly comparing the cost of providing a binational education to other types of education which are less expensive; hence freezing or fixing income which restricts a school form employing U.S. teachers.
   4. In the name of equality, ignoring the cost of relocation which personnel incur when employment requires that one household be abandoned and another established; hence tending to employ most everyone locally.
   5. Not having a systematic means for recruiting, selecting and inducting qualified administrators and teachers usually limits a school's ability to maintain a qualified faculty that is adequately balanced to provide a binational education.

d. Some became "dual schools," that is they housed a U.S.-Type Program and a Host Country Program on the same campus, each with little or no relation to the other:

   1. Separate directors were employed,
   2. Separate tuition schedules were developed.

*or any host country language

In my opinion, the need for binational, multicultural, and bilingual education is greater and more compelling today than it was a decade or a generation ago.

The first and foremost question which should be addressed by the three schools here is: *To what extent should the schools establish linkage in order to be more responsive to the needs of National and U.S. children who desire (and/or need) a binational, bilingual education?* Future planning and decisions by each school or a consolidation thereof, are by necessity a function of the answer(s).

Even though subject to some inaccuracies, several clusters or groups of student needs and characteristics can be identified in this area. They are as follows:

1. Children for whom a binational, bilingual program is immediately appreciated. These usually include: (1) National and other Spanish-speaking third country nationals who have entered a bilingual school at a pre-school grade level, or (2) long-term U.S. resident children who have been reared in a bilingual setting.
2. Children for whom a bilingual program is appropriate only after a transitional period of intensive study in a second language is provided, i.e.: (1) non-English speaking children who enter at a post-first grade level, and (2) non-Spanish speaking children who enter at a post-first grade level.
3. Children for whom a bilingual education is inappropriate, e.g.: (1) a non-Spanish speaking high school senior, or (2) a non-English speaking last year bachillerato student.
4. In some cases, "third culture" children (children who may have been exposed to any number of cultures other than their own), for example: (1) a National child born in the U.S. who lived and attended school in the U.S. through the eighth grade, or (2) a U.S. child who has never attended a U.S. school and is in the seventh grade.
5. Children who are short-term residents and for whom the school calendar is inconsistent with that of their previous school.

These five examples highlight the major clusters of children in this area who constitute the major demand for education of the type provided by the schools included in the study. The examples do not constitute a classification system, but do identify clusters which individually, or by a number of possible combinations, permit future analysis of the programmatic relationship of student characteristics to curriculum.

There are several alternatives which each school may follow, or possibly, cooperate:

1. Each school may seek to better serve the needs of one or more groups than any other school, and compete for students.
2. The schools may establish an interschool advisory board and each concentrate on what it can best do.
3. The schools may be consolidated and operate as a system responsive to the diversity of needs.
4. One school could seek to serve the diversity of needs and if successful, could probably attract the major enrollment.
5. Each school could continue on its present course and seek to do a better job than it is presently doing.

In my opinion, there are compelling reasons – programmatic and financial – which support the establishment of some type of unified system in this area to provide for the diverse needs of the present and potential pupil population which constitutes the demand for binational, bilingual and U.S. type education. It is equally true, in my opinion, that no one school in the area is presently responsive to the diversity of needs which exist. This statement is not to adjudge any school as "good" or "bad"; indeed each school may be providing programs which it believes to be responsive to the pupils it serves and may elect to confine its programs to the group(s) presently served.

Whatever your decision, it will have great impact on the future quality of binational and bilingual education in this area."

VIGNETTE

Dr. Will Wright: Capturing the Rationale

Dr. Wright dedicated a great part of his life to fostering better understanding among peoples of the world. He had lived through the periods when this was referred to as increasing mutual respect, international relations, and most recently international education. Much of his work was with the American Sponsored Overseas Schools. He was asked frequently why these schools were important and why should their personnel be involved. He prepared a presentation for a conference in the Near East where personnel from the ASOS in 35 countries would be present. He walked to the podium . . .

"Personnel in American Sponsored Overseas Schools frequently ask about their larger role in international relations in general and about the international dimension of teacher education specifically. Personnel in U.S. schools and universities regularly are requested to provide a rationale for international involvement. Everyone should have a reasonable understanding of why they are involved and what they hope to accomplish. Hopefully, this paper will contribute to a better understanding of why so many people are involved in the international dimension of teacher education.

In order to discuss this topic with some semblance of organization and delimitation and yet not forfeit the opportunity to include some remarks I believe to be critical, I have attempted to treat three basic questions. The first two questions are treated in a cursory manner to provide a modicum of *perspective*. The last one is treated more systematically.

The questions treated are:

1. Why should teacher education have an international dimension?
2. How do teachers get an international dimension?
3. And, finally why have we had so many notable failures in our efforts in international education and what can we do about it?

Why Should Teacher Education have an International Dimension?

We in America and indeed people throughout the world place an awesome responsibility on schools. This reflects not only a pinpointing of responsibility but almost a naive faith in the capability of education to provide learning experiences and opportunities which indeed will be responsive to any problem at any point in time.

There are countless examples in the literature which demonstrate that the attain-

ment of societal goals necessarily directs the means for their attainment to converge on the schools. George Counts, in attempting to reduce the complexity of statements concerning goals of free people throughout the world stated them simply as combining to form two transcending goals: survival of liberty and survival of civilization. From this more general level to a more specific charge, President Johnson stated that "the conduct of our foreign policy will advance no faster than the curriculum of our classrooms." Both Harold Taylor and Stephen K. Bailey point out the complexities and responsibilities of the age in which we live and conclude that we must educate people for world responsibility. A goal is also stated implicitly in the hearings on the International Education Act: "an educational system must today produce citizens who are equipped with the knowledge, sensitivities, and competencies for functioning intelligently in the vital and extensive areas where diverse cultures meet and must accommodate without the biases and misinformation which generate fruitless tensions and devastating conflicts." To oversimplify this very complex problem, we could state that the major educational problem in the world today is to create a society of people who are tolerant and understanding of peoples of different color, culture, faith, linguistic background and political ideology and thereby produce popular characteristics which make feasible that governments, as Commager suggests, "resort to the council of reason to solve national and international difficulties."

It is obvious that if we are to arrive at this level of civilization, that teacher education must have an international dimension. Charles Frankel removed our option of having or not having an international dimension in teacher education when he pointed out "there was a time when Americans had a choice; to educate for world responsibility or not to do so. This freedom of choice is no longer theirs. Whatever they do they make a decision that has international impact – schools educate or miseducate for world responsibility but they cannot avoid doing one or the other."

In addition to pragmatic reasons for teacher education being infused with an international dimension, we also expect any one culture to be enriched through a continuing process of new ideas, new values and new approaches which provide alternatives. Furthermore, man's identity with mankind will never permit him to attain personal fulfillment in a free society unless he fulfills his moral commitment to upgrade the quality of life for all peoples. Leestma asserts that ethnocentric education is obsolete but admits that essentially it continues to be so.

The goals implicit in these statements can be attained only through the knowledge, wisdom, attitude and understanding that indeed support them. This is the fabric of education. Unless teachers are prepared and helped to foster them through curriculum and their own behavior, their attainment is unlikely; failure to understand man's interdependence may be his last modern mistake.

How Do Teachers Get an International Dimension?

The most popular statement that can be made about what is being done in teacher education to assure that teachers get an international dimension would be to state that the profession is training teachers who are behavioral models of internationalism and interculturalism through utilization of a methodology of behavioral consequences and cognitive-affective dissonance, employed consistently in the context of intercultural attitudes and behaviors. Professionally, and specifically for teacher education programs, the above statement reflects an aspiration which has

validity and virtue but not one which is operational to any extent. It may well reflect where we are going; however, it does not reflect how we arrived where we are. Most of our present efforts in international education that relate to educating people are based on a very broad and expanded definition of the basic sociological concept of a cross cultural experience. This concept is simply that anyone, by understanding a culture substantially different from his own, will gain not only an understanding of that culture but also a better understanding of his own. It has formed the rationale for everything from penpals to overseas technical assistance. Colleges and universities teach area studies, international studies, languages, and many, many other courses with an international or intercultural flavor or dimension. Additionally, and again based on this sociological concept of cross cultural experience, planned and unplanned activities designed to provide direct international or cross cultural experience are provided. These include short term and long term study, technical assistance, and indeed programs such as many American Sponsored Overseas Schools (ASOS) maintain in School-to-School, University-to-School, and Inter-Regional Center relationships. All of these hopefully combine to provide teachers with an international dimension, which is defined not only as possessing information but also as the wisdom to recognize internationalism as a frame of mind, an attitude, a concept of oneself as a member of an international community – it means behaving interdependently rather than independently.

Why Have We Had So Many Notable Failures In Our Efforts In International Education and What Can We Do About It?

There is no simple answer which will provide us with a key to why we have had so many notable failures in attempts to foster international education. We cannot but be influenced by many of these notable failures, however. Commager's observation referring to our approach to the problems of our relations to the rest of mankind is vital when he stated "never in history, it can be confidently asserted, have so many been exposed to so much, with results so meager." We cannot but be influenced by the failure of the International Education Act, by the rise of provincialism and by opposition to many major efforts to extend existing structures and programs to include the international dimension; and by the general lack of support – financially, morally, and programmatically – for international education. I sometimes suspect that the increasing incidence of cases of lack of confidence in society's institutions is directly related to a condition which has evolved in which our tolerance for gross incompetency has no workable boundary and our penchant for compatibility reduces our most potent organizations to low risk, single purpose entities. These conditions often combine with the net result being that all new thrusts are constrained by the lowest common denominator of compromise and security. I deeply fear that we have lost much of our historical greatness to institutionalize change and have forced it to operate outside of the system..

More pragmatically, however, perhaps we have not learned one of the lessons we teach in cross-cultural education. We seem to be relying on facts as a means to influence behavior contrary to the compelling evidence of John Useem and others that factual knowledge is the least significant dimension of understanding across cultures; yet we continue in our approach by subsuming behavioral changes from simply providing people with more information and with a better quality of information. I suggest to you that there is no dearth of information about the need for the international dimension in teacher education or how to meet that need, but indeed there is a problem of strategy in most of the approaches we have followed.

I would suggest further to you that our failures are directly related to the following reasons:

1. The research base for the international dimension of teacher education is imprecise and underdeveloped and few institutions are engaged in improving this base.
2. We are incorrectly and dangerously assuming that there is a direct correlation between levels of understanding and intelligence (as now measured). We are relying on people to make judgments and decisions based on transcending principles and expecting, because of demonstrated intelligence, that they will do so. In my opinion, there is overwhelming evidence that many intelligent people are still predisposed to maintain the status quo in spite of the fact that such boundaries may well result in disaster.
3. Many of our professional organizations in education make decisions on the basis of internal political expediency and have so emulated the behavior of the political structure that indeed many of our organizations with the greatest potential continue to operate at the lowest common denominator of compromise.
4. Many activities which are proposed and implemented with a design to attenuate bias and prejudice indeed simply reinforce existing biases and prejudice.
5. We have lost too much of our boldness and brashness.
6. We have over-emphasized creating specialists at the expense of extending most disciplines to include the international dimension.

These statements of failure are oversimplified but I do believe give us a different premise from which we can begin to consider the basic question of "What do we do about it?"

Obviously, the first point that should be made is that development in international education will continue to proceed on a broken front. We must continue the good practices we now have, learn how to make them better, and increase the number of people influenced by them. Secondly, I believe those of us who are committed to what I like to believe are some transcending principles must make a greater commitment and a more intense commitment and not be discouraged by the lack of general acceptance of what we believe to be of the utmost and urgent importance.

In addition to proceeding on this broken front, the single most important new direction we should consider is to reduce the popularly believed incompatibility of international education with the foreign and domestic policies of the United States. Many people continue to misinterpret and therefore are not willing to support at the program or a political level improved international education activities. We need to do a great deal of work to demonstrate the compatibility of two positions which I believe can be stated: (1) The United States has a leadership role in the world in creating in peoples a sense of world responsibility which will result ultimately in a world in which the benefits of civilization can be made available to all without violent confrontation, and (2) The United States in a leadership role in the world recognizes that it must remain strong economically and militarily while it pursues its international objectives; otherwise there is no long range hope for the general exercise of world responsibility in a peaceful and free world. These two positions are indeed compatible but most people appear to believe that the first position is the only concern of international education leaders. Support for international edu-

cation will not be forthcoming until it is politically acceptable to support it.

The second most important direction is for leadership personnel to be provided with a better understanding of the interrelationship between international education and the resolution of local, state, regional and national problems. The potential of creating in peoples a sense of world responsibility is a long range goal; nevertheless, it requires and its vitalness compels, each individual, each school, each university and each government to look beyond itself and its own problems to its larger responsibility. This is no easy task, because in spite of our best efforts in education, selfishness for what is closest to an individual or a group continues to constrain many decision-makers. Until many more leaders do understand and support transcending goals, we will continue with ethnocentric behavior. Kissinger supports this point in his statement ". . .America has never been true to itself unless it meant something beyond itself. As we work for a world at peace with justice, compassion and humanity, we know that America, in fulfilling man's deepest aspirations, fulfills what is best within it."

Premises

The following premises are related to the category School Program which appears in the Research Matrix.

Premise: Substantial literature concerning the ASOS treats the school program indirectly; however there is a dearth of literature related to the effect of school program on learning in the cognitive and affective domains.

For examples: (1) Personnel studies treat recruitment, selection and induction of personnel in terms of qualities believed to be compatible with ASOS program needs; however follow-up studies of performance have not been undertaken systematically, (2) achievement and adjustment studies of pupils in the ASOS generally do not target on their relationship to school program but on indices in which the independent variables are first language, income or occupation of parents, success in colleges, beliefs or knowledge about culture(s), nationality, fluency, peer relationships and aspirations, and (3) the major study with implications for school program (Fraser, 1970) targeted on measurement of bilingual achievement of students with test scores, time in program and grades in both languages utilized as variables to determine whether significant separation could be obtained with discriminant analysis between major types of program organization; the research, however, provides models for program organization to create bilingualism according to the proportion of pupils who speak one language as opposed to another.

Premise: The major consideration for an ASOS concerning school program is the correlation between the school program and the school's purpose, objectives, admission policies, and the feasibility of program accommodations to diversities in pupil needs which is usually a function of philosophy combined with financial capability.

For examples: (1) if an ASOS has a required bilingual program and admits non-English or non-native language speaking children at any level, it must provide appropriate learning opportunities during the transitional period, (2) if a school competes with other private schools concerning tuition rates, it may limit its potential to provide expanded program opportunities, and (3) school programs which are

truly responsive to children from multinational and multi-lingual backgrounds are expensive and furthermore may limit the size of the school clientele, (4) school programs in an ASOS designed as exclusive private school programs will conflict constantly with the quasi-public mission of the ASOS to which many within the general clientele who constitute the demand for enrollment in the ASOS subscribe.

Premise: An ASOS has a unique obligation to present itself for what is in terms comprehensible to those who seek its services, especially since a mobile, internationally involved population tends to generalize about the ASOS believing that they are more similar than, in fact, they are.

For examples: (1) A parent, especially if relatively inexperienced with educational opportunities available outside of his own country, will tend to assume that all ASOS have the same basic program (which is not factual), (2) school programs in schools designated as ASOS range from transplanted U.S.-Type public schools to host country schools with English taught as a second language, and variations in school programs include: exclusive private school college preparatory orientation; high cost and low cost operations; extensive school service provisions and extra-curricular activities; bare and minimal academic programs with nothing else provided by the school.

Conspectus of Research

Few studies have been conducted in the ASOS which examine the curriculum or instruction in the schools. Most of those available have been conducted in Latin America; probably representative of the greater similarity of the ASOS in Latin America than in a world context.

Orr's 1964 study of the binational schools in Latin America questioned administrators concerning the curriculum offered and its relationship to the stated objectives of each ASOS. A case study approach was used to examine the programs and operations of six ASOS in Mexico. Curricular problems reported to be common to all schools but little relationship was found between the instructional programs and the stated objectives.

Beans (1968) in a study of the ASOS in Sao Paulo, Brazil, examined the current operation and program of the school in addition to tracing its history. The program's effectiveness in developing international understanding was assessed, and Beans concluded that more involvement in local culture was needed as well as other curricular improvements.

Ronsheim (1967) in a study of two international schools in Western Europe included an in-depth examination and description of the two schools' instruction and programs. The program of the European School, Luxembourg, met the major criteria of a 'true' international school by promoting international understanding, having bilingual and multilingual instruction, having an international curricula, and preparing students for university entrance in more than one country. He reported that the International School in Geneva did not meet all of these criteria.

Sokol (1972) in a study which compared five ASOS secondary schools in Colombia with ten private Colombian secondary schools included instructional methodology as one aspect compared. School Administrators supplied the data and information on instructional methods used. Sokol's analysis indicated negligible differences between the two groups of schools.

One aspect of Fraser's 1970 study involved a detailed description of the language program of eight ASOS in Latin America to identify the program elements which created the major organizational differences among the schools. These elements included: (1) type of diploma program offered, (2) admission policy, (3) instructional use of each language, (4) time scheduled for language instruction, (5) provision for monolinguals, and (6) type of grouping for instruction. Treatment of each of these elements in each program is described as well as the level at which reading instruction is begun in each language, the methods of evaluation and the texts and materials used. Five models were developed which depicted the organizational elements of the major bilingual program patterns identified. Each model was representative of an average school day and showed the major variables, time and instructional use, in the proportional dimensions of the model. The balance of bilingual outcome which could be anticipated for each organizational pattern was also expressed statistically for each model.

Perrone (1963) investigated the image of America as perceived by Mexican and Argentine social studies textbooks. The study was based on the concept that educational media should assist in the development of international understanding by presenting materials free from bias or any other elements which may foster prejudice. Examination of a number of texts revealed that they generally treated U.S. history in unrelated segments or fragments; treatment was outdated and in no way current, even though all texts examined had been printed since 1956. In general, life in the United States was not portrayed in a manner which would assist a realistic interpretation of present day conditions, the author concluded.

Several other studies could also be classified in this category, most notably Young (1960), Beans (1968), Flora (1972), King (1968), and McGugan (1970).

Mannino (1971) reports the existence of curricular problems as a direct result of the personnel difficulties of overseas schools. ASOS are ideal for experimentation and innovation yet have remained so U.S. oriented as to seem insensitive to opportunities for innovation, particularly in intercultural education. Part of the reason may be the result of the geographic isolation from new educational developments in the United States. Mannino summarizes:

> "The prevailing propensity among the schools seems to be: to transplant and perpetuate a standard 'American' curriculum into the overseas situation. The professional staff is supported in this regard by U.S.-dominated lay boards of control."

He concludes that:

> "The leadership and personnel problem within most schools argues strongly against their ability to perform satisfactorily to a worldwide standard at a time when appropriate and equal services must be guaranteed each American pupil regardless of his place of residence overseas."

Extensive research has been reported in areas relating directly to school programs conducted in multi-cultural school environments. The implications of this related literature for the ASOS will vary significantly. Of greatest interest of value to the ASOS will be those studies dealing with second language teaching and multiracial questions.

Beecher conducted a study in 1968 which sought to determine the patterns of acceptance and rejection between Puerto Rican and Negro students in New York City. Three hypotheses were tested.

1. That social distance was related to length of residence and residential proximity. Part of this hypothesis was supported. The Ohio Social Acceptance Scale was administered and length of residence did correlate significantly with a .397, but residential proximity did not appear to have a relation.
2. That skin color was related to socio-metric choices. This hypothesis was not supported.
3. That when either group was in the minority, acceptance scores would be higher than when both were in the minority or in the majority. The reverse of this hypothesis was supported. Beecher concluded that "the social climate of the school environment rather than the variables measured was largely responsible for positive relationships between the two ethnic minorities in the sample."

Parmee in a 1966 study investigated the perceptions of personal and social problems by students of different ethnic backgrounds. The study analyzed problems reported by Mexican-American, Anglo-American and Negro students in terms of their relationship to ethnic or adolescent influences. The author concluded that the reported problems indicated participation in the large American adolescent culture as well as the culture of the ethnic group, and in fact, more problem areas reflected general adolescent concerns than ethnic differences. The most apparent ethnic differences were found in problems related to personality and self-concept. Negro and Mexican-American students reported low self-concept in terms of physical appearance, personality assessment and estimation of ability. Mexican and Anglo students expressed the desire for social improvement, Anglos more so than Mexican. Negro students expressed the least number of problems; however the effects of racial prejudice and social rejection were evident in their responses.

Plott in 1967 analyzed the characteristics of Mexican-American and Anglo-American students who were participants in co-curricular activities. The study examined the characteristics of school adjustment, school attendance, educational development, academic grades, pupil attitudes and physical characteristics of boys as factors of possible difference between participants and non-participants in co-curricular activities. Findings were:

1. Both Mexican-American and Anglo participants had better scores on the Iowa Test of Educational Development and had better academic grade averages than non-participants.
2. Anglos had better scores on educational development measure, but the educationally advantaged did not do better on this measure than the educationally disadvantaged.
3. There was no difference in physical characteristics between participants and non-participants.
4. All groups were remarkably homogeneous on attitude measures.

The author concluded that participants and non-participants in co-curricular activities do not differ significantly in school attendance, on attitude and adjustment measures, or in physical characteristics.

Bilingual school programs in the U.S. have increased in number during the past two decades. Many research findings have implications for the ASOS.

Trevino (1968) compared the differences in achievement in math basics and reasoning in a bilingual (Spanish-English) instructional program to a total English program with the following conclusions:

1. Both English and Spanish-speaking first graders taught bilingually scored better on basics than students in the exclusively English program but not better on reasoning.
2. Both English and Spanish-speaking third graders taught bilingually scored better on math reasoning but not on basics than did those in the exclusively English program.

In a group controlled for repeaters and transfers, there was no significant difference in achievement between native English speakers and native Spanish speakers when taught bilingually. The mean score of native English speakers was slightly higher but the result was not at the level of significance needed, and so could have occurred by chance. Trevino also reported that native Spanish speakers were generally achieving below grade level at the end of the first year of the bilingual program, but their achievement was above grade level by the end of the third year.

Davidson (1967) designed, developed and taught a special program for culturally deprived Mexican-American first graders. The 147 day pilot program was installed in a regular elementary school; teachers were provided weekly in-service in the conduct of the program and the normally used standardized instruments for language testing were administered for evaluation. However, sufficient control apparently was not exercised in the selection of the experimental sample since the experimental group scored better on the pre-test than did the control group to a level of .01 significance. The author concluded that there was inequal readiness between the two groups and the significantly higher reading and total achievement of the experimental group on the post-test could not be attributed to the program.

Rupp (1967) developed a guide for teachers which consisted of materials to help elementary administrators and teachers to develop and organize programs for culturally distinctive children: either racially, ethnically or linguistically distinctive. The guide provided materials to help aid children in developing the concepts necessary to satisfactory progress in school or school success. The content of the guide was designed for children ages 3½ to 6 and consisted of: (1) Introduction; (2) Resource Guide with content planned in socialization, cognitive and psychomotor skills and organized by basic learnings, suggested activities and sources of additional information and materials; (3) Supplementary Suggestions and information on program organization; and (4) Reference Materials, bibliography and other instructional materials.

Modiano (1966) conducted a study which compared bilingual and all Spanish approaches to reading instruction in some Indian schools in Chiapas, Mexico. The purpose of the study was to determine whether reading comprehension in the national language (Spanish) was achieved more effectively by members of linguistic minorities when all reading instruction was offered in Spanish or when students first became literate in their mother tongue. The hypothesis that reading comprehension is best achieved when all instruction is conducted in one language was not substantiated by the study. More students had higher mean scores in Spanish reading comprehension who had first been instructed in their mother tongue. This was one of several studies which supports the linguistic principle that children must first be instructed in their mother tongue. The bilingual situation in the study was Spanish and an Indian dialect in Mexico.

Barclay (1969) reported the results of an experimental language and concept formation training program with Mexican-American Headstart children. Treatments for the experimental groups incorporated Ausubel's structured cognitive concept formation approach with linguistic training methods for non-native English speaking children. The study also attempted to determine if use of both English and Spanish as the languages of instruction would result in greater language gain. Control group treatments involved use of music and art activities. Peabody Picture Vocabulary was used in pre- and post-testing. Post-testing was also done with the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, Vance Language Skills Test, and Templin-Darley Test of Articulation. The study hypothesized that:

1) A structured language training program based on psychological and linguistic foundations will result in greater language development than will use of music and art activities for Mexican-American Headstart Children

2) Bilingual presentation of the language training program will result in greater language development in English than use of either English or Spanish alone.

The findings included: Hypothesis No. 1 was supported. A significant F ratio was not obtained on any of the variables which favored the treatment groups. Hypothesis No. 2 was only weakly supported. On one post-test the bilingual group scored significantly higher than the English group; on another the bilingual group was higher than the Spanish group. In both however, teacher x treatment interaction effects tended to weaken the main effect. The hypothesis was rejected in 18 out of 20 instances and only weakly supported in two instances. The researcher concluded that "even in a structured language and cognitive training program. . .disadvantaged bilingual and Spanish-speaking children did not learn more as measured by standardized tests than their peers in music and art."

Baca (1956) surveyed the status of education for bilingual children in Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico and Texas. Aspects surveyed included attendance, segregation of pupils, special courses of study used, special texts and tests, special services, and community attitudes toward the education of Spanish-speaking youth and adults. No findings were reported in the abstract.

Flores (1969) surveyed bilingual programs in the U.S., reviewed the literature in bilingual education from the philosophical, sociological, psychological and linguistic viewpoints; reviewed several achievement studies and made suggestions for integrating materials, teacher education, radio and TV into bilingual programs. Educators in bilingual education were consulted concerning criteria for bilingual programs, and a questionnaire was devised to show operational models and strategies in the administration of bilingual programs. The study surveyed the factors of administrative support, kind of community, type of school, objectives, time and treatment of languages, placement procedures, articulation, teaching strategies, use of radio and TV, extra-curricular activities, acculturation, staffing, teacher training, community involvement, materials, library use, evaluation procedures, administrative comments and conclusions. Five programs were examined through the survey and in on-site visits: The five programs were those in Miami, Florida, Bronx, New York, Del Rio, Laredo and San Antonio, Texas, and represented Cuban, Puerto Rican and Mexican-American populations. Results were organized and reported under theoretical considerations, successful results, inherent problems and future expectations.

Interesting conclusions included:

1) There are only 12 "real" bilingual programs in the U.S. New York City and Chicago have one each.
2) The effectiveness of the five studied is established.
3) Bilingual programs are the solution to problems of non-native English speaking children in the U.S. Community acceptance is prevalent.
4) Chief problems included: availability of materials, evaluation procedures, teacher training, recruitment, financing.
5) The potential of radio and TV is great but at present they are not effectively utilized.
6) Each program had some outstanding feature not found in the others.

The researcher made recommendations on school policy, materials, methodology, evaluation, teacher training and research. Guidelines were also developed for setting up exemplary bilingual programs.

An experimental study by Weiss (1962) supplied information on the effects of simultaneous and related language instruction in English and French. The study hypothesized that the ability to use English is promoted through a contrastive-comparative experience with a foreign language. The treatment groups in the study received block-time instruction in English and French with both languages being used during the instructional period and linguistic methods being employed. Control groups had single period instruction in each language, and traditional instructional methods were used. The block-time approach was more effective for writing, expression and other creative activities; while the single period classes appeared more effective for the mechanics, grammar and usage.

Instruction in bilingual multicultural settings is a persistent problem in the ASOS. Substantial research has been conducted concerning the problem.

Hong (1968) conducted a study that compared verbal and non-verbal teacher behaviors in different school settings; high income white, low-income white and low income Negro. The study attempted to correlate different aspects of non-verbal behavior with each other and with teachers' verbal behaviors which could be classified as student-centered using Flanders' system of interaction analysis. Results included: (1) Significant correlations were obtained between positive kinesics (facial and head movements) and student-centered verbal behavior, and (2) no correlation was found between haptics (instances of touching) and student-centered behavior in Negro settings, but these two variables correlated in white settings. However, more teachers in Negro schools and low income white schools had high scores on haptics than teachers in high income white schools.

Sarthory (1968) investigated the effects of ability grouping on self-concept, intercultural attitudes and occupational and educational aspirations of students in a multi-cultural school setting: Anglo and Spanish-American. The author concluded that an ability group can not be considered a reference group; the variables studied seemed more associated with family and socio-economic class. Ability grouping did seem to reinforce occupational aspirations; high IQ students grouped together had significantly higher aspirational levels than ungrouped high IQ students. Inter-

cultural attitudes seemed to be based more on socio-economic factors than on ethnic group. Ability grouping did not seem to promote negative intergroup attitudes but appeared to perpetuate the cleavages in the larger society which are based on socio-economic status. The study also found girls to be more tolerant than boys, and majority attitudes toward the minority were more negative than minority attitudes toward the majority.

Painter (1965) investigated the effects of a particular instructional technique in the modification of vocabulary growth of deprived bilingual pupils. The purpose of the study was to determine the effectiveness of a teaching technique which employed a bridging vocabulary selected and structured to facilitate reading vocabulary achievement. The experimental group scored significantly better on vocabulary achievement measures; however, there was no significant difference on other measures: reading comprehension, mechanics and spelling. The author concluded that improvement in vocabulary did not improve comprehension, mechanics or spelling.

Saiki (1968) developed a unit in Japanese literature as an example of using non-western literature in high school language arts programs to encourage understandings of other cultures. The instructional unit had the objectives of helping the student to: (1) gain insight into experiences of people in another country, (2) discern the universality of human drama and how people of different nations are bound by common concerns, and (3) become aware of cultural differences which may help to indicate why people in different countries react differently to similar types of situations. The unit included translated literature, historical information, religion and art. A teachers' guide was developed for use of the materials. The unit was laboratory tested with 60 ninth grade students and then field tested with 447 tenth grade students; six teachers were given special instruction in use of the unit. Students were pre- and post-tested on attitudes, knowledge and skills presented in the unit, and eight of 20 attitudes showed significant change as a result of instruction. The author made recommendations concerning content selection, and organization and developing in-service opportunities for teachers.

Hunkins (1968) analyzed the literature produced concerning international education since 1946, identified three major alternative positions, appraised them and suggested guidelines for clarification. The three positions identified were referrents for "international understanding."

(1) IU-A defined international understanding as attitudes of friendliness toward other peoples. This position emphasizes emotional attitudes rather than actual conditions. Proponents fail to set guidelines indicating attitudes needing change, and the end state to be obtained by the means of friendliness is undefined.

(2) IU-K defined international understanding as knowledge of other cultures. This position is concerned with the relationship within rather than between cultures. It fails to develop causal claims showing the connection between means, i.e., educational activities, and the ends desired.

(3) IU-S defined international understanding as a type of strategical wisdom. It describes the end state but contains ambivalence in defining the means, the educational activities for achieving that end.

Hunkins concluded that educational activities for international understanding should be more directly related to the goal of peace. He then offered the view that

emphasized understanding the process by which human associations evolve in human communities with common interests.

Lawrence (1969) conducted a study which constituted a proposal to package aspects of American culture on film, preferably existing films such as those produced by Bell Telephone and Walt Disney, and make them readily available to other countries. The films would be shown as part of the program of instructional centers to motivate peoples' interest in and desire for further learning. The study also discussed the need for and advantages of programs for international education.

Femminella (1968) identified, described and analyzed the relationships between ethnicity and ego identity in a sample of Italian Americans. Hypotheses were developed concerning the continuance of ethnic affiliation through successive generations, residential mobility, and the relations of ethnic ideological themes and identity. These were supported by the study and the author concluded that ethnicity did have fairly strong influence on individual behavior; self-concept, value orientations and reported ego ideals were all at least partly determined by ethnic group membership.

Lee (1968) conducted a study as a part of an experimental project in a 12 grade rural school in Alabama. The purposes of the study were to: (1) determine any change in attitudes concerning purposes of education on the part of personnel participating in activities designed to enrich a standard curriculum using aspects of international education, and (2) assess the significance of change as compared to 10 purposes selected by a panel of educators oriented to international education. Findings revealed that purposes of education related to international education became more important to teachers and doctoral students who were involved in developing instructional objectives, searching for informational sources and contacting culturally different people. The purposes became less important to state education agency personnel who did not participate and interact as extensively in the project as did the teachers and doctoral students. The author provided suggestions and implications to consider for replication of the project:

(1) Participants must be aware of goals and expectations from the outset,

(2) continuous planning is necessary, and

(3) More resources and materials sources need to be identified at the beginning of the project.

Barron (1970) presented a rationale for the incorporation of international education activities in teacher preparation programs. He also described various types of existing international programs for teacher education.

Atkyns (1958) created a basic structure for a high school course devised to increase international understanding. The experiences and information in the course were directed toward the achievement of four goals of international education set by the Society for Psychological Study of Social Issues in their 3rd yearbook and toward developing characteristics of worldmindedness. The basic structure of the course was determined by the relevant findings in social psychology and cultural anthropology. The course organization was described by its psychological, sociological and logical aspects. Psychological aspects included a group-centered, group planning approach to cooperative and individual projects, encouragement of homogeneity and task-centered cohesiveness, emphasis on cultivation of self-insight and role of frustration in aggressive and scapegoating behavior. Activities involving

international techniques to be used were: catharsis, case studies, role playing and forced contacts. Sociological considerations involved selection of subject matter to provide information on the economic, social, and political order in the world, inclusion of area and national character studies incorporating cultural patterns, universal culture patterns, real and ideal personality, congruence and social continuity. Area and national character studies were combined with historical and political information in the study of world problems. The major objective was to build concepts that develop peace supporting expectations and habits.

The course designed was for a twelfth grade English-Social Studies core class since this grade was "most conducive to school-initiated change of student attitudes." Administrative support included exchange personnel, appropriate teacher selection and funds. The author concluded that the course provides a multidimensional approach to achieving the goals of international education, and that by-products should include better inter-group community relations and more responsible citizenry.

The purposes of a study conducted by G. L. Anderson (1965) were:

(1) to determine the extent to which primary teachers agreed with accepted guiding statements for developing international understanding in children,

(2) to determine the extent to which teachers believe these statements can be implemented in the classroom,

(3) to determine which of the statements teachers are implementing and the nature of the instructional activities used, and

(4) to identify professional and personal factors related to the teachers' responses to the statements.

The study developed 63 guideline statements concerning education for international understanding in the primary grades which were validated by authorities in anthropology, child development, psychology, sociology and elementary education. A sample of 244 Midwestern teachers rated the statements as to their acceptance, suitability, and actual classroom implementation. General findings were:

1) Teachers accepted about 82 percent of the statements.

2) Forty-eight percent of the statements were considered suitable for first grade, 58 percent for second grade and 61.5 percent for third grade.

3) First grade teachers reported implementation of 21 percent of the statements; second grade teachers reported 27 percent and third grade, 35 percent.

4) Teachers used units, AV aids, discussion of current events, and personal contact with other people more frequently than action projects or exchanges of letters or art work.

5) Differences in responses were slight with respect to age, experience, educational level, mobility of residence and travel experience.

Anderson concluded that primary teachers attach validity to more of the statements than they consider suitable for implementation at their grade level. Teachers made attempts to implement fewer ideas related to international education than they consider a suitable concern for their grade level. Practices and methods already in common use can be successfully applied to education for international understanding. However, methods advocated by authorities as appropriate to international education are not widely used.

S. M. Ahmed (1962) identified and compared the nature, focus and degree of emphasis on international understanding in curriculum materials prepared before 1945 and after 1955. The materials were limited to those in Social Studies in grades 4 through 6 in 12 school systems in the U.S. The systems were geographically representative and generally representative of the size and type of systems in the U.S. Related literature was reviewed to establish guidelines for examination, and curricula was assessed in terms of objectives, content, resources and activities. Ahmed found that there was no conscious attempt to include education for international understanding in programs prior to World War II, but the gradual inclusion of this content after World War II was evident. The materials used in the 12 systems showed a definite trend toward increasing inclusion of goals to develop international understanding. After 1955 materials place more emphasis on 1) awareness of current world problems, 2) understanding of international organizations, 3) developing powers of critical thinking. The researcher made the following suggestions for further study:

1) development of an attitude scale for judging acquisition of positive international attitudes,
2) investigation of what schools actually do to promote international understanding,
3) survey elementary schools to ascertain what materials are available to assist in developing international understanding.

H. R. Anderson (1962) investigated the effects of rural isolate characteristics and the presense of 400 Ute Indian children in the Uintah school district and developed implications for pupil personnel programs. Among the findings were that students suffered the typical handicaps related to locale, stemming from limited economic opportunities, social, cultural and educational contacts that are characteristic of the rural isolate environment. Achievement was below the national norms on SRA Achievement Tests with the greatest weaknesses being in the language arts and verbal sections. Problems relating to the Indian presence stemmed from the cultural differences of the Ute tribe. Essentially, the tribe lacked educational motivation and saw little value in mass education of their children. Implications for pupil personnel programs included: (1) more effective procedures for enrollment and maintaining attendance of the students, (2) expansion of the counseling services to include more emphasis on vocational orientation, and (3) provision of enrichment experiences for the social and cultural aspects of life.

Ulibarri (1960) sought to determine the extent of teacher awareness of social and cultural differences as they affect the education of Spanish-speaking and Indian children in New Mexico. The researcher hypothesized that teachers were not aware of many socio-cultural factors affecting the education of minority children. A questionnaire developed from pertinent literature was administered to teachers currently teaching at least two cultural groups and having had experience with a third. Three control groups of teachers were teaching only one cultural group. The

questionnaire covered the psychological needs of children in relation to socio-cultural differences, cultural orientations, social conditions and educational problems. Findings revealed that most teachers lacked sensitivity toward differences in socio-cultural conditions and cultural orientations of the three ethnic groups. For example, although teachers were strongly aware of differences in English language proficiency, they were insensitive to differing abilities in using the grade level textbook. Teachers were aware of differences in home environments but failed to differentiate specifics in life-space and their implications for education. Teachers also lacked sensitivity concerning different motivational patterns and structures applicable to the three groups. And teachers were generally unaware of the different ways that the psychological needs of children from different cultural backgrounds could be met. Ulibarri concluded that generally teachers were following an undifferentiated middle class value-oriented curriculum in which provisions for language development were inadequate. Curricular experiences were not equated with a child's experiential level and intergroup relationships were not furthered. The author strongly recommended in-service training in understanding socio-cultural factors of students. Ulibarri also concluded that the ultimate objective of minority education has yet to be determined and those concerned should participate in its determination: whether minority children should be educated for life in the traditional culture or prepared for acculturation and assimilation into the dominant society.

Weiser (1966) investigated the effects of cultural background on the quality of verbal responses to multi-definition words. The study was based on the assumption that the level of cognitive functioning is indicated by the quality, or variety of responses given. The study found that a vocabulary test which elicits quality of definition is an effective instrument for differentiating between the concrete and abstract levels of conceptual functioning. The study also found that a disadvantaged background influenced significantly both the quality and type of responses.

Pomerantz (1970) investigated the relationship between intelligence and reading achievement for a varied sample of bilingual Spanish speaking students, and found that the California Test of Mental Maturity was valid for prediction of reading achievement among bilingual students. Although it was not capable of differentiating between achievers and non-achievers specifically, the author concluded that it had value in identifying potential reading problems.

Gordon (1969) conducted a study which investigated the relationship of English language abilities and home language experience of first grade children of three ethnic groups, varying socio-economic status and varying degrees of bilingualism. Layne (1970) conducted a study which explored modern language theory and language instruction in a bilingual setting in Guam. This study also included a strategy for primary English language instruction on Guam.

Several studies were found which compared the language abilities and academic achievements of students of different ethnic backgrounds.

Webb (1968) compared the psycho-linguistic abilities in English of Anglo, Negro and Latin American lower class pre-school children. The study found all subjects deficient in language abilities as compared to the normative sample. The children in the sample were generally lower in auditory vocal functions than they were in visual motor processes. Anglo children exceeded Negro and Latin American children in total language facility, but no difference was found between Anglo and Negro children on individual measures. The author concluded that ethnic affiliation con-

tributed differentially to linguistic development; and that lower class children as a group have inadequate auditory discriminatory abilities.

Thomas (1968) compared language concept development among Spanish-American and Caucasion average and mentally retarded children. He found mentally retarded children to have less well-developed language concepts than children of average intelligence. Spanish-American children had greater deficiencies in English language concepts than Caucasion and mentally retarded Spanish-American children had the greatest deficits.

Tullis (1964) and McDowell (1966) both did comparative studies of the academic abilities and achievements of Anglo, Negro and Latin students in Texas. McDowell's study was conducted in San Antonio and Tullis' study in West Texas.

Romero (1966) conducted a study of Anglo and Spanish-American culture value concepts and their significance in secondary education in the U.S. The study was designed to provide information to be utilized in the development of curricula for students of Spanish descent. The study compared Anglo and Spanish-American value concepts and determined the value configurations that are in conflict. The author found ten major value concepts that are conflicting in the two cultures. The study also investigated the degree of acceptance of Anglo values by Spanish-American students and found, generally, evidence of good acculturation and little value conflict in school settings. The study further explored the degree of teacher awareness of socio-cultural differences as they affect the education of Spanish-speaking students. He found that the teachers in his sample were unusually sensitive to the cultural differences. The author also reviewed pertinent literature and developed and administered acculturation and teacher awareness questionnaires.

Lahr (1968) conducted a study which assessed the relationships of four major value orientations to sex, ethnic identity and socio-economic status and attempted to determine if certain value patterns correlated with academic success. Kluckhom and Strodbeck's value orientation schedule: the Time and Man-Nature sections, were used. Results included the following: (1) The dominant pattern in time orientation was Present-over-Future-over-Past for all groups, (2) there was no difference between Negroes and non-Negroes on the Time orientation, therefore the study did not support the present assumption that middle class non-Negroes are generally future oriented. Variations in Man-Nature orientations correlated with all three variables:

Group	Pattern of Orientation
High socio-economic white males	Man-over-Nature-Man-subject-to-Nature-Man-with-Nature
Low socio-economic Negro females	Man-subject-to-Nature-Man-over-Nature-Man-with-Nature

Ethnic identity had the greatest influence over the choice between the Man-subject-to or Man-over-Nature alternatives. The findings suggested the influence of preference for Man-over-Nature orientation on academic success. Achievement scores were highest with those indicating a dominant preference for the Man-over-Nature orientation. Achievement scores were moderate where preference was equal between Man-over- and Man-subject-to-Nature orientations; and lowest when preference was for the Man-subject-to-Nature orientation. Interestingly, the Man-with-Nature orientation, i.e., the ecological emphasis on living in harmony with the environment was the lowest preference for all groups.

Borrego (1968) surveyed the development of teaching English as a second language to Spanish-speaking children in five Southwestern states and examined in depth the program in Alamosa, Colorado. He found that teachers are generally ill-prepared to understand another culture as it is represented in its language. Middle class teachers were unable to fully understand the needs of Spanish-speaking children, and teachers generally stereotyped the Spanish-American child. Many teachers had not as yet realized that these children would not learn English well if opportunities for learning and speaking Spanish were denied.

Hussey (1967) developed criteria for second language programs in the primary grades which included criteria for: (1) development of second language curriculum, (2) initial acquisition of second language skills and (3) continued development of second language skills. The author concluded that neither audio-lingual or visual techniques are adequate for developing bilingualism, rather the use of native speakers as teachers is a more natural method. Recommendations were made which included:

(1) Programs should experiment with teachers who are native speakers of the second language being taught,

(2) the teaching of reading should be modified to allow students to first begin reading with the words they already know how to speak,

(3) more music teachers should be employed as phonics teachers, and

(4) the criteria developed should be used as a basis for the training of second language teachers.

Oneto (1968) assessed the effects of a continued second language program on foreign language skill development. The study used the MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests and compared achievement of students having taken a foreign language since elementary school (FLES) and those beginning their foreign language study in high school (non-FLES). Tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade students were tested. Findings included:

(1) FLES students excelled in all skills measured when compared to age peers,

(2) in all four major language skills, FLES students had at least a two year advantage, and

(3) the languages taught in the FLES programs tended to dominate the high school language enrollments because students tend to select the language they studied in elementary school rather than choosing a third language.

PERSONNEL

VIGNETTE

Susan Smith: Master Teacher

Reflecting in one's own life a dedication to teaching children that transcended other goals, Ms. Smith had developed into a master teacher. She exemplified what all teachers should be. She was patient, compassionate, understanding and also highly skillful and competent. She planned carefully with and for her class and her students learned as much as they were capable of learning. Children with special

learning or adjustment problems occasioned by cultural shock, learning a second language, ethnic or racial differences received help. She developed her own instructional materials according to the needs of the children. The ASOS was fortunate to have her. She was more valuable than she knew.

VIGNETTE

Don Antonio Zapata: An Indispensable Man

Don Antonio was a fixture around the ASOS. He was handyman, ramrod, driver, purchaser, and a thousand other things. He knew where you could buy an elusive item and where the cutoff valve was for the overflowing commode. He could jerry-rig an electric fan or a booth for the Halloween carnival, tap a keg for the July Fourth Celebration or find an extra bus for a field trip. He could cajole a driver's license or even the post office.

Most importantly, however, was that if he couldn't do something or find something, he knew someone who could. The ASOS may survive without a superintendent, or a math teacher, or an accountant for several months, but it is in immediate jeopardy without its Don Antonio.

VIGNETTE

John and Mary Wanderlust: See The World Courtesy of the ASOS

"Spain this year (and maybe next if a two year contract is required for paid return transportation), Italy, Greece, Rio, Quito, Bogota, Tehran! Think of the opportunities – hundreds of them, including the ASOS. Pack up, see the world, "get culture," and do it the easy way. Spend all time possible on the slopes, the beaches, the mountains; at the ruins; in the museums, the bars! Don't let the job interfere unduly."

The superintendent wondered if the couple being interviewed were good prospects who could balance opportunities for cultural enrichment with the extraordinary demands for thoughtful lesson planning, conferences with parents, in-service meetings so vital to performance in a multinational, bilingual school. Was the ASOS their top priority, or did they plan to use the ASOS as a means to other priorities? Could he find the answer?

VIGNETTE

Joseph Williams: Identity Crisis

Mr. Warren Williams accepted what he had known since Joe was born – Joe simply didn't have it. Being told of his shortcomings throughout his life had not seemed to make any difference. Joe Williams never quite understood where he was going or who he was. He had majored in psychology while an undergraduate in his futile quest to understand himself. His continuing search for an itentity and success persistently evaded him. His meandering took him overseas, where, being available in the early Fall after a teacher failed to report, he was employed by an ASOS to teach. He viewed teaching as a means to an end initially, but became increasingly enchanted with the opportunity it provided for him. He found that the children – especially the newcomers – were reacting with attentiveness to him and particularly to his exhibition of knowledge of cultural differences. He began more and more to emerge himself in the culture as he gained increasing reinforcement from the children. He began to assume local cultural characteristics and dress as he became more emerged.

Sally Bryant told her mother that Mr. Williams was really funny and that he amused all of the class. As a preadolescent, she thought he was really with it – he reflected what she dreamed about but feared, freedom from constraint and an almost romantic approach to the different, bizarre, or forbidden. What was fantasy for her seemed to be reflected in Mr. Williams.

Sally's father thought Joe Williams had "gone native," the school principal thought he was bordering on being bizarre, the guidance counselor thought that through unconscious motivation, Joe's behavior was fixated at an immature level and he was seeking to assume an identity that was viewed as successful even if by the children, instead of Joe's father.

Joe thought that he had found himself at last.

VIGNETTE

Willis Wonder: Career ASOS Superintendent

The ASOS which Willis administered was as good as any ASOS and, in his opinion, as good as any school anywhere. He was among the few who had spent – for all practical purposes – his professional life in the ASOS. The job, the man and the social setting converged. The school was almost too well organized. A few decades of experience and a manageable size, coupled with regular planning projections had the natural result that the school operated without major problems.

The only question that persisted for Willis Wonder was if he would ever return to the States and, if indeed he did or he didn't, would he be content?

Premises

Premise: In the final analysis, the quality, competency and dedication of personnel in an ASOS will determine its capability to provide the best possible teaching-learning process for its pupil population; therefore conditions and policies to foster the selection and maintenance of quality personnel is a top priority for any ASOS community – boards, parents, patrons, and other interested people.

For examples: (1) Complexities normally expected within the personnel function are compounded in an ASOS by its very nature; well designed and operated personnel recruitment, selection, and induction functions are vital, (2) the demands on professional personnel in the ASOS are at a level different from those in a typical school; therefore extraordinary competencies are required, (3) ASOS personnel function in a social system that is limited and more constrained than typical; therefore provisions for acculturation are often required, (4) professional personnel in the ASOS operate in relative isolation from opportunities for continuing training that is responsive to their needs to function at a high level in an ASOS; therefore provisions for in-service education are vital to maintenance and improvement of personnel, (5) mistakes in personnel selection are much more costly and complicated in an ASOS – both financially and programmatically – than typical, (6) tendency for high personnel turnover is higher in the ASOS than typical, and (7) experienced overseas personnel tend to underestimate effects of cultural shock on new personnel and effects of professional isolation on experienced personnel.

Premise: Extensive study has been undertaken concerning personnel in the ASOS but there is evidence that a lag time of a

decade exists between agreement on conditions which foster the personnel function and subsequent conclusions becoming pervasive of policy in the ASOS in general.

For examples: (1) Not more than ten percent of the ASOS have published policies concerning the personnel function, (2) most ASOS tend to rely on externally generated minimum requirements rather than internally developed policies which are consistent with their goals and objectives, (3) turnover of key personnel tends to be unusually disruptive, indicative of lack of institutionalization of goals and practices, and (4) the ASOS which are outstanding rely unduly on the vision, dedication and competency of a few; such a condition is fortunate but high risk in long range planning if not balanced by broader based commitment to the practices which result in the ASOS being outstanding.

Conspectus of Research*

Mannino (36) reports the quantitative data on personnel in the American School Overseas (ASOS) throughout the world and their distribution by nationality, by geographic region and by size of school enrollment. He reports the number of classroom teachers stated in full time equivalents by nationality and geographic region. Slightly more than half (54%) of the teachers employed in all ASOS are U.S. teachers. Schools in South and East Asia, Africa and the Near East have larger proportions of U.S. teachers, while ASOS in the American Republics have more binational and multi-national faculties than schools in other regions. (36, p. 51).

Mannino also reports the number of ASOS by percentage of U.S. faculty in each geographic region. About half of the schools employ 25 to 75 percent of their faculties from the United States. This distribution corresponds roughly to the distribution of pupils by nationality. A larger proportion of ASOS in Africa and East Asia hired 75% or more U.S. teachers. ASOS in the American Republics have a larger proportion of non-U.S. teachers. (36, p. 51) The study reports the number of classroom teachers stated in full time equivalents by nationality and by their distribution according to size of school enrollment. Smaller schools tend to have more U.S. and third country national teachers proportionately than do the larger schools. (36, p. 51)

Mannino's study reported 124 chief school administrators in the ASOS throughout the world. He reports the number of full time administrators excluding school heads in the ASOS by geographic region and by school size. These other administrators include: principals, assistant principals, assistant superintendents and business managers. Most of these administrators were employed by the large schools in the American Republics, Europe and East Asia. Only 18 of the 128 were employed in schools enrolling fewer than 500 students. (36, p. 92)

McGugan reports the total number of teachers, employed full time and part time by the ASOS in Latin America by nationality for 1969-70. U.S. teachers represent less than one-half of the faculty in the schools. (38, p. 2-26)

Personnel data is reported by McWhorter (39) on the ASOS in Venezuela. In 1966-67, 4 schools employed 92 full time teachers and 31 part time teachers or 114 full time equivalents. Seventy-five percent of the teachers were U.S., 15% were host country nationals and 10% were third country nationals. (39, p. 104)

*Research references in this section include extensive quotations; therefore citations are explicit. For example: (36, p. 51) refers to publication number 36 in the Research Matrix bibliography with the data appearing on page 51.

Seaquist (91) reports the distribution of the teaching staff by nationality in the seven ASOS in Colombia and Haiti. He found that North American teachers outnumber Colombians in all but one school, and in another school the ratio of North Americans to Colombians is more than four to one. Colombians predominate, however, in non-professional positions. The distribution by nationality in each school is reported.

An indication of growth in the schools in Latin America is evidenced by comparison of data reported by McGugan and data reported by Luebke and Mannino for 1965-66. (35) In 1965-66, 22 schools in Latin America were designated as ASOS. These schools employed a total of 741 faculty members; 317 were American and 424 were non-American. Four years later, there were 44 schools with a total of 2086 faculty members. Much of this growth is probably the result of existing schools meeting the eligibility requirements of the Office of Overseas Schools. It should be noted that the ratio of U.S. to non-U.S. teachers decreased slightly from 43 to 40 percent.

Fraser reports the number of language teachers employed in eight ASOS in Latin America and the percentage responsible for language instruction, both English, Spanish and other languages, of all teachers employed. These data are shown in Table I.

TABLE I. – Number of Teachers Responsible for Language Instruction in Eight ASOS in Latin America: 1969-70.

School	Barranquilla	Bogota	Cali	Cartagene	Guatemala	Mexico City	Puebla	Santo Domingo
Total Language Teachers	26	48	29	11	38	84	44	23
% of all Teachers	67%	62%	85%	61%	42%	63%	40%	59%

In developing guidelines for determining the educational adequacy of American-Sponsored overseas schools, McGugan states that "compliance with Guideline 5, provision of sufficient, well-trained professional personnel, is vital to educational adequacy." (38, p. 5-15) The major objective measure of training accepted is professional degrees held. Manino (36) reports the distribution of degrees held by all full time overseas teachers by nationality and by geographic region. Ninety-four percent of all full time teachers hold some teaching degree, and 61 percent hold a U.S. degree. (36, p. 54) About one-third of all teachers hold a foreign degree which is not generally comparable to a U.S. degree. (36, p. 56) It should be noted that about 12 percent of host and third country national teachers hold a U.S. degree, and that about an equal number of U.S. and host country teachers hold no degree.

Mannino (36) reports the level of the highest degree earned by full time teachers by geographic region and by nationality. The highest degree earned by all part time teachers in the overseas schools is reported by nationality and by geographic region. About 30 percent of part time teachers hold a U.S. degree, while 54 percent hold a

foreign degree. Almost 16 percent of part time teachers as compared to 6 percent of full time teachers have no degree. (36, p. 56)

In commenting on the preparation of overseas teachers, Mannino states:

> Qualifications of teachers, both nationals and U.S. citizens almost uniformly are lower than in United States public and private schools. Isolated schools are worse in this regard than those located in large population centers. (36, p. 168)

Mannino also states, in the context of examining teacher-pupil ratio:

> Though pupil-teacher ratio is low, it is not evident that quality instruction follows. . . . Indeed, the extent of preparation of overseas school teachers overall is fairly low, due to the high incidence of underprepared non-U.S. teachers in faculties. The U.S. teachers, however, are as well-prepared on the average as teachers in the U.S. schools. (36, p. 105)

McGugan reports the distribution of the highest degree held by full time faculty in the ASOS in Latin America by nationality and by degree level. (38) About half of the ASOS faculties in Latin America hold U.S. degrees. Twenty percent of the Bachelor's degrees and 2 percent of the Master's degrees are held by non-U.S. citizens. This number results partially, no doubt, from proximity to the United States, but may also be indicative of in-service programs conducted by U.S. universities in Latin American ASOS.

McGugan comments that although 171 faculty in ASOS in Latin America hold degrees above the bachelor's level, "a significant number of the faculty, however, are undertrained and/or inappropriately trained for the positions they occupy." (38, p. 5-7) He also remarks that:

> A critical factor is that unclassified degrees from non-U.S. institutions comprise over 40 percent of the total degrees. This may be a strength or weakness dependent on the type of college program and work leading to the degree. (38, p. 2-29).

Seaquist and Orr (52) report on the educational qualification of the instruction staff in the seven ASOS of the Association of American Binational Schools in Colombia and Haiti. (52, p. 58)

The authors comment that:

> by far the largest number of teachers have bachelor's degrees only, which generally means that they are young and that a sizeable proportion of them are probably planning to do further professional study at least to the MA level. (52, p. 58)

Fox (19) reports on the level of educational attainment of faculties in accredited and non-accredited ASOS in Latin America. The number of teachers holding the given degree in the accredited and non-accredited schools is reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2. – Level of Educational Attainment Within Faculties in Accredited and Non-Accredited Schools

Category	No. of Schools	Masters or above	Bachelors Degree	Less than a Bachelors
Accredited	18	115	317	199
Non-Accredited	20	35	137	389

Fox commented:

> Nearly one-third of the teachers employed in accredited schools failed to meet the (SACS) Standard of a Bachelor's degree. More than two-thirds of the teachers in non-accredited schools would fail to meet this Standard. On the plus side, approximately 18 percent of the teachers in accredited schools hold Master's degrees. . . . While neither type school is to be commended for the large number of teachers with less than Bachelor's degrees, noticeable leadership of accredited over non-accredited (schools) in areas of teachers with a Bachelor's degree or above is clearly a mark of progress. (19, p. 57)

Fox also reported the number of teachers in accredited and non-accredited schools holding U.S. credentials. His survey indicated that while 61 percent of teachers in accredited schools hold credentials from one of the 50 states, only 22 percent of teachers in non-accredited schools have such credentials.

McWhorter reports on the preparation of teachers in the four ASOS in Venezuela: 17% hold Master's degrees, 80% hold Bachelor's degrees and 3% have no degree. (39, p. 132) Seaquist (91) considers language fluency of teachers as an aspect of teacher qualification for overseas schools. He reports the number of teachers in each of the seven ASOS in Colombia and Haiti who are considered operational in the languages: English, Spanish, French and German. The measurement is perceptual, however, since no tests of language competency were administered. He does comment, however, that "generally, the national teachers who speak English do so with more proficiency than the U.S. teachers exhibit in speaking Spanish." (91, p. 114)

Fraser reports the number of language teachers in eight ASOS in Latin America who are perceived as bilingual by their school principals. The percentage of bilingual language teachers ranged from 27 percent to 91 percent; the average was 58 percent. (20, p. 161)

Fraser also reports the qualifications of teachers responsible for language instruction in eight Latin American overseas schools. The percentage of language teachers holding U.S. degrees ranges from 23 percent to 80 percent with a mean of 58 percent. The percentage of language teachers holding either a U.S. or foreign degree ranges from 42 percent to 100 percent, with a mean of 76 percent. The number of non-degree language teachers is far higher than desirable. The study also reported that from 22 to 72 percent of the degreed language teachers were teaching outside their major area of preparation. The study also showed the number of language teachers holding U.S. and national certification. National certification was

possible in three of the four countries in the study without completion of a college or university degree. (20, p. 157)

Mannino reports the number of faculty, including administrators, in the ASOS world-wide who hold United States certification. (36, p. 65) Forty-two percent of all faculty hold U.S. credentials. The ASOS in the American Republics have the least proportion of U.S. certified teachers because they employ more host country teachers. Licenses to teach typically are not required by the host country of teacher employees of ASOS. (36, p. 63) Mannino comments that:

> The incidence of U.S. certification personnel among American school employees is a rough indicator of the quality of such personnel (as compared to comparable teaching positions in the United States). (36, p. 63)

The certification of full time classroom teachers by country of origin and size of school enrollment is reported. Seventy percent of U.S. teachers are U.S. certified also, and 3.5 percent of host country and third country national teachers are U.S. certified. Small schools have the highest rate of U.S. certified teachers, but they also employ a higher proportion of U.S. teachers. (36, p. 66)

Mannino also reports the number of years of professional experience of the faculties of the ASOS. Years of teaching and administrative experience of full time faculty is reported by geographic region. Forty percent have less than 6 years experience, while 7 percent have less than one year and 7 percent have over 20 years. The median years of experience is seven years. No marked difference among regions was noted. (36, p. 60) The years of professional experience of part time personnel is also reported. The data show a median of five years with 10 percent having over 20 years and 13 percent less than 1 year. Mannino comments:

> It may be inferred that the American schools attract reasonable experienced personnel among both full and part time staff. (36, p. 60)

McWhorter reports the years of professional experience of the faculties of the four ASOS in Venezuela. The total number of years in their present position for all faculty was 237 which resulted in a mean of 2.5 years tenure. The total years of professional experience for all faculty was 651 years which resulted in a mean of 7.0 years, exactly the median reported by Manino for ASOS personnel throughout the world. (39, p. 132)

Fraser reported the mean number of years of experience of language teachers in each of eight ASOS in Latin America. (20, p. 159)

Mannino reports the highest degree earned by 124 of the heads of ASOS by geographic region. Fifteen percent hold less than a master's and 13 percent have doctorates. Little variation can be observed between the regions. (36, p. 85)

Roth, in a study of 98 chief school administrators of accredited overseas schools, reports 100 percent holding Bachelor's degrees, 76.5 percent have Master's degrees and 14.3 hold doctorates. Other characteristics reported included: 92 percent were male, 81 percent were between 36 and 55 years of age; 83 percent were married; and 59 percent were not fluent in the language of their host country. (58, p. 11) It would appear from that last result that foreign language fluency is not a dominant factor in hiring a chief school administrator for overseas. (58, p. 21)

Mannino reports the highest degree held by full time administrators excluding

school heads by size of school enrollment. In general, these administrators are not as well prepared as the chief administrator, but are better prepared than faculty. Fifty-two percent hold master's degrees as compared to 68 percent of the school heads. (36, p. 92) He also reports the number of years of teaching and administrative experience of chief school administrators. Generally, the school heads have more years of experience than faculty; forty-seven percent have 16 or more years of experience, as compared to 16 percent of the faculty. (36, p. 85) Only 3 percent of school heads as compared to 7 percent of faculties had less than one year of prior experience. (36, p. 89) He suggests, however, that this data may be misleading in light of King's careful study of 94 school heads in 1967-68. King reported that 75 percent of school heads had been in their present position only two years or less; and that 25 percent were holding their first administrative position of any type. Also 75 percent had four years or less total overseas experience, and the last position held by one-third of the school heads was that of United States teachers. Only 10 of the 94 had previously been school superintendents, and 14 had been school principals. (36, p. 89)

Mannino comments:

> Accordingly, it would appear that the ASOS may confront a crisis in leadership, brought on by the high rate of turnover among school directors and experienced U.S. teachers. (36, p. 89)

Roth's finding support King's observation. He found that most administrators had been in the position they were holding less than four years. But he also found that almost half (46.9%) had been overseas 9 years or more. (58, p. 21)

Mannino reports the number of non-instructional personnel stated in full time equivalents by geographic region. The number of non-instructional personnel reported by school size is included. The least developed area was in audio-visual and instructional technology. Health, dental and medical services also were underdeveloped. Of the 24 individuals employed in this area, 14 were in schools in the American Republic and Near East South Asia. (36, p. 78)

Curriculum and supervisory personnel were in short supply; only 28 were employed for 3,560 full time equivalent teachers in 128 schools. Although there were 120 full time equivalent librarians, 75 of these were located in the 42 schools enrolling 500 or more pupils. (36, p. 73)

The ratio of counselors and pupil personnel staff to students for all ASOS was 1 to 925. However, only 3 were employed in the 70 schools enrolling fewer than 300 students, and none were reported in the 51 schools enrolling fewer than 200 pupils. Two-thirds of all counselors were employed in the 59 schools in East Asia and the American Republics. (36, p. 78)

McGugan reports in the survey of the 44 ASOS in Latin America that auxiliary personnel were not generally available. (38, p. 5-15) He also reports that in the five ASOS in Latin America that have been designated U.S. Government Sponsored Schools, there is a

> serious shortage of qualified librarians, guidance counselors, curriculum specialists and other necessary personnel if education comparable to that available in the United States is to be provided. (38, p. 4-25)

Fox reported the presence of counseling personnel in accredited and non-accredited schools in Latin America. In the 23 accredited schools, 13 have counseling services and 10 do not. In the 20 non-accredited schools, 2 have counseling services and 18 do not. But 44 percent of the accredited schools did not meet the ASOS Standard of employing at least one half time professional trained counselor. In the 43 schools in the study there were only 13 counselors employed. (19, p. 60)

Seaquist (91) reports the projected needs for special personnel for five years in his 1967 study of the seven schools in the Colombian Binational Association. He comments that:

> in order to fulfill the needs of all the students the instructional staffs must be augmented by specially trained personnel that work in the areas of curriculum, guidance, art and others. . . . (However,) only three of the schools apparently have considered the problem realistically in terms of actual student needs. (91, p. 54)

Orr (46) reports the characteristics of academic personnel in a study of 23 binational schools in Latin America and a detailed analysis of six binational schools in Mexico which was conducted in 1962. One of his conclusions concerns the preparation of overseas faculties. He comments:

> Based on the extent of their training and experience, binational school teachers are not sufficiently skilled for the tasks required by the binational school enterprise. (46, p.96)

One of the major personnel problems of the ASOS is the high rate of teacher turnover and the subsequent need for continuous recruitment of teachers and administrators. The 1957 statement by Rowland A. Egger as quoted by Roth succinctly describes the problem.

> . . .At present time our overseas operations are gravely burdened by the necessity of coping with ten and twenty year problems with four or five year projects manned by one or two year personnel. Part of this difficulty derives from our unwillingness to admit, even to ourselves, that we are in the business of overseas operations for a long, long, time. But even if policy and appropriations problems were solved, turnover would not be. We cannot keep repeating the first year of our programs; sometime we have to get on to the second and third and tenth and twentieth year. This can only be achieved if a substantial central core of the overseas labor force thinks and acts like a permanent professional organization. (58, p. 3)

Mannino reports King's study of teacher turnover in a sample of ASOS throughout the world.

> "King examined the amount of turnover among United States teachers in a sample of 22 overseas American-sponsored schools. The years studied were: 1966-67 and 1967-68. His sample included 605 teachers who were identified on the roster of the 22 schools in 1966-67 and 614 teachers in 1967-68. The difference between the number of teachers in 1967-

68 and those who appeared on both the 1966-67 and 1967-68 rosters was the basis for calculating a percent of teacher turnover in those schools.

The percent of turnover reported for those years was 47.3 percent of all United States teachers in the 22 sample schools. Variance among regions was wide. In Africa: 58.3 percent; in the American Republics: 43.6 percent; in Europe: 48.1 percent; in the Far East: 45.9 percent; in the Near East and South Asia, 50.0 percent.

Since the overseas school depends largely upon the United States teachers in its faculty to attain and maintain excellence in instruction (by United States standards), such high rates of turnover among United States teachers can only have a destructive effect on the schools' programs. Fortunately, turnover among qualified local teachers is much less. These data have not been compiled systematically, but are consistent with verbal reports from regional education officers on the scene." (36, p. 71)

Mannino comments,

> Turnover among key school personnel, particularly of United States citizens, is often double that found in comparable schools in the United States. (36, p. 169)

McGugan found continuity of leadership personnel at the board and superintendency levels a significant problem in the five ASOS in Latin America designated U.S. Government Sponsored Schools.

> The average tenure of board members during the five year period, 1965-69 was 1.65 years; during the same period, the tenure of the chief administrative officer ranged from a high of four years to a low of three months. If policies and school programs are to be developed, continuity of leadership is vital. (38, p. 5-14)

Roth (58) in the study of 98 overseas administrators found the following results:

1. 76.5 percent had changed educational jobs from 1 to 6 times.
2. 42.9 percent had changed jobs in education 3 or 4 times.
3. The predecessor of 47.9 percent of the administrators in the study had had a job tenure of only 1 or 2 years.
4. 72.5 percent had held their present position for less than 4 years.
5. But 74.5 percent reported that they intended to remain in educational work overseas as a career.
6. And 78.6 percent reported that they and their families liked living overseas. (58, p. 12)

In the study of overseas schools in Venezuela, McWhorter (39) indicates that 14 of 16 school directors reported high turnover as a problem. Teachers remain on the

average 2 to 3 years and it is not unusual to replace one-third of the faculty every year. (39, p. 222) McWhorter comments: "Under these circumstances, there must be a high degree of organization and concentration of effort to locate and orient new teachers." (39, p. 222) Some comments from the directors in the study included:

> Each year is like starting over with no carry-over from the previous year.

and,

> But a certain amount of turnover is good because new teachers bring new ideas and the latest practices from United States schools. (39, p. 222)

One aspect of the study by Fraser (20) examined the effect of teacher turnover on the English and Spanish language performance of students. Fraser reported that the average tenure of language teachers in eight ASOS in Latin America ranged from 1.4 to 7.9 years with a mean of 3.8 years. This study analyzed the length of tenure as a predictor of language program outcomes with several results. Length of tenure had an insignificant correlation with English language outcome measures. However, the mean Spanish language scores were higher in programs retaining teachers longer than two years. Differences between English and Spanish scores (indicating more bilinguality) were smallest in the programs where mean teacher tenure was longer than four years. (20, p. 238)

Fox concluded from the study in which he sought to assess influence of accreditation on teacher turnover and morale that,

> while respondents apparently feel that accreditation has not assisted in reducing turnover, they do believe morale would suffer significantly if accreditation were lost. Therefore, teachers must be concerned about whether or not a school is accredited, but, if one follows this to its conclusion, they do not remain at a school any greater length of time because it is accredited. (19, p. 77-78)

Orr and Seaquist suggest that since many of the teachers in overseas schools are young and only hold a Bachelor's degree, an in-service program, assisted by a United States university so that it gave credit toward an advanced degree, would be a possible attraction for longer tenure.

> Many teachers at this stage in their career might be induced to spend more than one or two contract terms in the binational school with an in-service program that helps them do what they should do – advance their careers through higher education. This opportunity must be available to National as well as U.S. teachers. This type of program should probably not only include U.S. type advanced education for teachers working in English; it might also advantageously include Colombian teachers working in Spanish. (52, p. 58)

The problem of turnover in the overseas schools is a critical one; Manino summarizes:

> . . .the turnover among qualified administrators and teachers approaches 50 percent annually. No systematic program of

institutional reform or instruction innovation can be built on that soft a personnel base. (36, p. 114)

The high rate of teacher turnover in the ASOS requires that recruitment of teachers be a continuous process. Every year overseas administrators must locate, persuade and transport to the school a sizeable proportion of new faculty and orient them to a binational situation given the resources of limited finances and few fringe benefits to attract qualified teachers.

A variety of sources of U.S. teachers are utilized by the overseas schools. Manino reports six recruitment sources of U.S. teachers by geographic region. These data indicate that 52 percent of U.S. teachers are recruited from the United States; 42 percent are dependents of U.S. host country and third country national employees in the host country. Of the 42 percent, about one-third are dependents of U.S. government employees. The unclassified sources included itinerate teachers, traveling graduate students and other such categories. (36, p. 54)

National teachers are often utilized to teach the host country and other languages, and in the American Republics, are often responsible for teaching the subjects required by the National government, civics, social studies and Spanish (46, p. 97) where the school offers a dual program. Host country government policy and attitudes sometimes affect the employment of national teachers. McWhorter reports that since the Venezuelan government restricts the enrollment of national students in schools not approved by the Ministry of Education, this also affects the employment of national teachers. (39, p. 220)

McWhorter also comments that,

> some schools prefer to hire local teachers because they have already adjusted to living abroad, require no difficult travel and living arrangements, tend to remain on the staff longer, cost far less than imported teachers and, if they have children in the school, are vitally concerned with the success of the school (39, p. 116)

A variety of methods and contacts are utilized to recruit U.S. teachers for overseas schools. With the increasing interest in living and traveling abroad, a number of placement agencies have sprung up to list "overseas teaching positions." However, when the U.S. Department of Staff Office of Overseas Schools assumed professional services responsibilities for the American-Sponsored Overseas Schools, "recruitment and placement of overseas school personnel, . . .was contracted to International Schools Services." (35, p. 5)

Many schools in fairly close proximity have formed Associations with one of their tasks being to assist each other with recruitment. McWhorter reports that:

> The Association of ASOS in Colombia and Haiti has developed an Association-wide recruiting program including national advertising in the United States, providing for the pooling of applications and placement materials in a centralized location for the benefit of all Association schools. (39, p. 138)

Other schools provide this service to each other informally. McWhorter also reported that when the 16 directors of schools in Venezuela were asked to indicate special school problems, they responded that:

> The difficulty of obtaining qualified teachers was only men-

tioned by five directors. The schools are responsible for recruiting their own teachers and they assist each other informally when vacancies occur unexpectedly. (39, p. 218)

Many schools have expanded their contacts with stateside schools through the School-to-School Projects sponsored by O/OS. In a study of the effectiveness of School-to-School Projects, Counce found that 56 percent of the overseas respondents agreed that the paired statewide system had assisted in faculty recruitment for the overseas school. (92, p. 100)

Respondents in Fox's study, when asked for suggestions as to functions the accrediting agent might perform of value to overseas schools, suggested "assistance in recruiting." (19, p. 87)

Whatever the recruiting source or process used, the problem still remains one of identifying competent and qualified personnel for the overseas situation. Some guidelines have been implied or established in existing assistance legislation.

Criteria for selection of overseas personnel is implied from the assistance criteria in the Fullbright-Hays Act of 1961:

> –The Director or Principal should be a U.S. citizen wherever practical.
>
> –There should be sufficient number of teachers from the United States or teachers trained in American educational methods to assure adequate contact for students with these methods and their corresponding ideals. (35, p. 7)

Additional criteria is implied from the assistance criteria for schools to be eligible for funds from the Foreign Service Act and Foreign Assistance Act.

> –Academic standards including teacher qualifications are comparable to those in American schools.
>
> –To the extent practicable under local conditions, U.S. curriculum and teaching methods are used. (35, p. 8)

Mannino suggests operational criteria for ascertaining teacher qualifications to meet the proposed minimum standard of one qualified teacher for every 20 pupils.

1. A graduate of a U.S. university teacher training program with full credentials for teaching in a public school in the United States.
2. A graduate of a U.S. university in an area of teaching who has obtained appropriate professional training at the fifth year level and who meets typical certification requirements, although not necessarily certified in any state and who would typically meet employment requirements of accredited private schools in the United States.
3. A host country (or third country) national with host country credentials for teaching in the national schools of that country who has successfully completed a one to three year training program in the United States especially designed to qualify that teacher for a leadership position in the American-sponsored schools overseas. (36, p. 184)

Mannino also suggests criteria for the selection of qualified administrators to meet the suggested minimum standard of one administrator for every 12 teachers. He defines "qualified" as

> a graduate of a U.S. graduate training program in school or educational administration at no less than the fifth year of graduate training. A fully qualified administrator would have completed a sixth year or doctoral program in this field of major. (36, p. 185)

Mannino also suggests minimum standards of one instructional supervisor for each 12 teachers and one qualified counselor for each 150-250 students in the upper four grades. He defines a qualified supervisor as one "who has completed not less than the master's degree program in an appropriate field from a United States university." (36, p. 185) Career counselors would have to have the same qualifications as in the United States which is usually fifth year training. He indicated that the qualifications for personnel counselors cannot be specified for the overseas schools since personal counseling requirements in the binational situation have not been adequately identified. (36, p. 185)

Roth's study has implications for the selection of overseas administrators. Using a JAIM (Job Analysis and Interest Measurement) scale which measures 32 factors of personal characteristics, attitudes and preferred behaviors, Roth assessed 98 school heads in accredited overseas schools and related these characteristics to specific job factors. Overseas administrators were significantly different from the normative group on 19 of the 32 factors. Administrators had higher mean scores to .01 significance on the following traits:

orderliness	perseverance
emotional control	preference for scheduled activities
supportive of others	willingness to take leadership
act independently	move toward aggressor
social service	group participation

(58, p. 14)

Administrators in the study had lower mean scores to .01 significance than the normative group on the following traits:

work as assistant	directive leadership
mechanical activities	status attainment
approval from others	

(58, p. 27)

Many of the problems of recruiting and retaining overseas personnel find their source in the salary schedule of the overseas schools. Mannino reports the compensation of full time classroom teachers in the ASOS by geographic region and by nationality. The compensation of full time classroom teachers by nationality and by size of school enrollment is reported. He comments on this data:

> Clearly, U.S. teachers in the ASOS were under-compensated in relation to their peers in the United States. Moreover, they were compensated at different levels depending on the size of the institution in which they taught and the region of the globe in which they resided. (36, p. 67)

In addition, salaries of teachers were proportionately lower than other U.S. em-

ployees in the host country in 65 percent of the ASOS. Thirty-nine directors reported that the salary level severely restricts the attraction of qualified personnel. (36, p. 69)

The median compensation for full time classroom teachers in 1968-69 was estimated at $4,388. United States teachers received a median compensation of $5,000; host country nationals received $2,700, and third country nationals received $4,200. Teachers in the American Republics had the lowest median compensation. Africa had the highest median compensation for U.S. teachers. (36, p. 67) The highest median compensation for U.S. teachers was in schools enrolling 100-199 students. (36, p. 67) Mannino concludes that salary levels for teachers must increase if the ASOS are to be competitive on the teacher market. (36, p. 69)

McWhorter, in commenting on the level of salaries in overseas schools, reports:

> There are many teachers and administrators who will accept small salaries so that they may have the experience of living abroad. In general however, the employment and retention of efficient teachers must be accomplished by salaries that are commensurate with the services they render, adequate to maintain a satisfactory standard of living and comparable to salaries paid employees in other occupations and professions in the area. (39, p. 109)

McGugan comments on the compensation paid in the 44 ASOS in Latin America:

> The salaries and other benefits provided by each school are different and as yet no school has developed a plan for teacher remuneration which takes into account the level and recency of training, nor adequately treats the problem of equal pay for equal work. (38, p. 4-27)

Fox reports teacher salaries in accredited vs non-accredited schools in Latin America in Table 3.

TABLE 3. — Teacher Compensation in Accredited and Non-Accredited Schools - 1969

Status	No. of Schools	Highest Teacher	Lowest Teacher	Average Teacher
Accredited	23	$6494.04	$2141.57	$4270.17
Non-accredited	20	4975.70	1163.50	2907.40

Clearly, accreditation improves the lot for the teacher.

McWhorter comments on the salary discrepancies between imported and locally hired teachers.

> Generally, the imported U.S. teacher is paid more than the locally hired teacher with the same degree. In the four ASOS in Venezuela, imported teachers are paid $1658 to $2943

more than locally employed teachers with the same degree. In addition to salary, imported teachers have round-trip transportation paid and are reimbursed for all other expenses incurred in making the move. (39, p. 116)

He also reports that "national teachers are employed by most schools to teach Spanish and are generally paid less than either the imported or locally employed U.S. teacher." (39, p. 117)

McGugan reinforces this observation with respect to all of the ASOS in Latin America. Although host country and third country nationals are paid less than U.S. teachers, they are

> frequently paid more than they would receive if they taught elsewhere (in the host country). Dependent wives are frequently paid less than teachers contracted from the United States. Contract teachers are frequently paid more, but are actually able to purchase less because much of their salary must go into direct living costs such as food and housing. (38, p. 4-27)

McWhorter compared compensation characteristics of the overseas schools in Venezuela and the ASOS in Colombia. The greatest difference was apparent in salaries. While the average U.S. teacher's salary in the four community schools in Venezuela was $7,380, the highest salary paid to any teacher in the Colombian ASOS was $7,406. (39, p. 130) (This study was conducted in 1967) The four community schools in Venezuela and the ASOS in Colombia have several salary schedule characteristics in common.

1. They all generally pay imported teachers more than locally hired teachers with the same qualifications.
2. They pay U.S. trained teachers more than locally trained teachers.
3. They provide increments for experience and advanced degrees.
4. They have sick leave provisions. (39, p. 130)

McGugan reports that the five ASOS in Latin America that have been designated U.S. Government sponsored schools have salary ranges for full time teachers from less than $2,000 to over $10,000. (38, p. 4-26)

McGugan found that financial support to attract and retain professional personnel varied widely in the five USGSS in Latin America and "support for fringe benefits was inadequate or non-existent." (38, p. 5-15)

McGugan also suggested as one of the guidelines for judging the "adequacy" of overseas schools that,

> the school should provide for such conditions of employment as will make possible the employment and retention of the professional personnel necessary to its program.
>
> This implies the responsibility for providing a good teaching environment, adequate compensation, community status as a professional and opportunities for professional advancement. (39, p. 4-26)

Mannino reports the compensation earned by school heads in ASOS by geographic region. He indicated that "compensation for school heads varied markedly in 1968-

69." Twenty percent earned less than $8,000 and 12 percent earned more than $20,000. The median was $12,300. He remarked that,

> Whereas the teachers in the overseas schools clearly were underpaid in relation to salary payments for comparable training, experience and assignment in the U.S., compensation for school heads was not out of line with comparable positions in the U.S. (36, p. 91)

He also reports the compensation earned by administrators other than school heads in ASOS by geographic region. These administrators appear to be compensated fairly with a median of $9,250. (36, p. 96) Mannino concludes:

> It would seem reasonable to infer that the overseas teachers in 1968-69 were underpaid in relation both to school directors and to second echelon administrators. (36, p. 94)

Roth's survey of 98 directors of accredited overseas schools also reports administrative salaries. (It should be kept in mind that this study included company corporate and D.O.D. schools as well as ASOS.) Roth found that 45.9 percent of the administrators earned between $13,000 and $17,999. Sixty-two percent earned between $13,000 and $22,999. (58, p. 13)

Seaquist reports the salary range for administrators in the seven ASOS in Colombia and Haiti. Salaries ranged in 1967-68 from over $15,000 to under $4,000. The highest paid chief administrator (Bogota) receives over twice as much as the lowest paid chief administrator (Cartegena). Three of the top positions are in the same step: $10,000 to $11,999 and five of the seven schools pay the chief administrator or principals between $10,000 and $14,000. (91, p. 82)

McWhorter reports:

> Administrators in Venezuela are paid on the average twice as much as teachers. This wide discrepancy in pay reflects the thinking of most controlling groups that the best way to develop continuity in the schools is through the chief school administrator. The high salary in part is designed to assure their continuous service for many years. (39, p. 117)

Mannino's report of compensation of administrators defined compensation as equaling salary plus allowances. (36, p. 96) He further defines fringe benefits as,

> not limited to salary in every instance, and may include subsistence *in lieu* of salary to U.S. teachers recruited from another ASOS.
>
> Thirty-five per cent of ASOS schools studied by King in 1967-68 provided free housing or housing allowances for U.S. teachers in that year. (36, p. 119)

Roth's study reports the percentage of school heads who received the following fringe benefits:

Home leave	76.5%	Hospitalization	51.0%
Housing	75.5%	Provision for furniture	48.0%
Moving expenses	70.4%	Pension plan	46.9%
Retirement	61.2%		

(58, p. 13)

McGugan comments on community status as an aspect of the schools' fringe benefits.

> Community status of teachers is uneven. The national and third country national teacher normally has community status based on factors other than teaching. This is true of dependent wives as well since they derive their community status largely through their employment status rather than their own.
>
> The contract teacher usually finds it difficult to fit into the national community because of barriers of language, closed society factors, and such, and finds it equally difficult to fit into the U.S. community because of economic barriers. (38, p. 4-27)

McWhorter reports that the four community schools in Venezuela have the following fringe benefits:

Salary schedule	All four schools
Provision for experience	All four schools
Provision for advanced degree	All four schools
Provision for merit pay	One school
Written contract	All four schools
Provision for sick leave	All four schools
Provision for professional leave	All four schools
Provision for personal leave	Two schools

(39, p. 112-113)

Orr and Seaquist's survey of the ASOS in Colombia and Haiti provide some summary information on the recruitment of administrative and teaching personnel for the overseas schools.

> Recent developments have improved the prospects for recruiting administrative personnel of high quality in the overseas schools. Increased involvement in international education by the local schools through the O/OS projects and The University of Alabama assistance program have expanded the field from which leadership can be recruited and selected.
>
> Projects such as the school-to-school program under O/OS sponsorship also offer opportunities for administrative exchanges with benefits realized by both the overseas schools and the participating local United States school system.
>
> Ultimately the schools themselves may prove able to identify and to develop a considerable proportion of their educational leadership. The participation of staff members in the decision-making processes in the schools should afford leadership experiences to people with an involvement in the schools, and may prove to be a most productive source of administrative prospects.
>
> The professional staffs of the binational schools are acquired from various sources: (1) Local National teachers of the native language who may be bilingual. National teachers of subject areas or grades who are bilingual and are trained in a National school of education; American wives of American businessmen

of Nationals. These wives are most often college trained and sometimes are former teachers. (2) United States teachers who are found in the States are invariably college trained and are often experienced. (3) Third country – many binational schools have teachers who are third country Nationals. Often the teachers from this source have language skills or other specialized training that is of special value to the school.

For the teachers that are sought outside the host country, special considerations must be made regarding travel, settlement costs, currency exchange, language problems, work permits or licensing, necessary health precautions, and the local culture and customs. Failure to provide the neophyte teacher with adequate attention in any of these points can result in confusion and dissatisfaction.

It should be obvious that complete details concerning a position must be given to a prospective teacher before he leaves his home if the term of employment is to be satisfactory. In doing this the overseas school must take the initiative and volunteer the necessary information since in many cases the person who has never been outside of his home country does not know what questions to ask and as a result is either naively confident or unjustifiably fearful. Full and frank communication between the employing school and the prospective teacher is a fundamental necessity to satisfactory teacher service.

There are various means through which the schools make contact with prospective teachers. Many are hired because some person already in the overseas community knows someone at home who is interested. Others are found through the Office of Overseas Schools in the United States State Department and still others are recruited by the International Schools Service.

Probably most teachers who teach overseas are located by the school superintendents who make periodic business trips to the United States and do recruiting for their own and neighboring schools.

A regional superintendency which has loosely grouped the schools at Barranquilla, Cartagena and Medellin has done much of the recruiting for the three schools for the past two years. If this proves to be successful, other schools may desire to explore the feasibility of such an intermediate unit.

Another source of teaching personnel is the School-to-School project which couples overseas schools with schools in the States. Numerous mutual benefits are derived from this relationship, one of which is exchange of teachers. Teachers in the United States schools generally are exchanged for a semester or a year and are enriched by the experience. As teachers become acquainted with the overseas opportunities, recruitment for the schools is made easier.

. . .all the schools (in the Association) give their teachers a written contract, and most of them stipulate that return pas-

sage to the point of origin in the United States will be paid only after the completion of two years of work. If the teacher resigns, is dismissed, or if the one-year contract is not renewed, the teacher must pay for his own return passage. Since the school is usually obligated to the host country to guarantee the teacher's return to his home, most of the schools hold back a portion of the salary that will cover this cost. Whether or not such action on the part of the school is legal has yet to be determined.

. . .The need to raise all salaries to a reasonable level, in addition to meeting rising living costs, poses substantial financial responsibilities for the schools. Moreover, the decision to provide quality education must result in the determination to support adequate faculty salaries. In the search for excellence, provision of satisfactory salaries at the staff as well as the administrative level is imperative.

Benefits to teachers must be viewed as another means of achieving faculty quality. Benefits which provide additional reasons for accepting appointment to the staff promote effective recruiting. In addition, benefits may help teachers to adapt to a new living environment effectively and result in a more productive staff. The proposed program in Barranquilla for a car allowance, as an example, is an exceptional undertaking, and while all schools can not emulate this in terms of the size of the benefit, all can search for ways to make it clear that the staff is held in high esteem and that their skills and effort are highly valued. It must be remembered that staff members may have forfeited insurance, pension, social security and similar benefits to work in the binational schools. (52, p. 39-43)

Mannino also summarizes the recruitment and retention problems:

> Too many schools are not attracting or recruiting accomplished "change agents" among their key administrative and teaching staffs. Moreover, the turnover among qualified administrators and teachers approaches 50% annually. No systematic program of institutional reform or instructional innovation can be built on that soft a personnel base. (36, p. 114)

Given the problems of recruiting and retaining teachers it would be logical to assume that teachers may often be assigned to teach outside their major area of preparation. This was found to be true for language teachers in the eight ASOS in Latin America surveyed by Fraser which shows utilization of language staff in these schools in Table 4.

TABLE 4. – Language Staff Utilization in Eight ASOS in Latin America, 1970

School	English	Spanish	Other	% of all Employed	% teaching in Area of Prep.
Barranquilla	18	6	2	67%	64%
Bogota	32	16	0	62%	68%
Cali	24	9	0	85%	72%
Cartagena	8	3	0	61%	71%
Guatemala	19	21	1	42%	50%
Mexico City	48	36	2	63%	78%
Puebla	24	30	0	40%	28%
Santo Domingo	17	7	1	59%	64%

The percentage of teachers responsible for language instruction ranges from 40% to 85% with a mean of 60%. The proportion of English to Spanish language teachers employed is indicative of the program emphasis given to each language. In equal time programs the proportion is nearly one to one, but in unequal time programs, English language responsibility predominates from 3 to 1 to 7 to 1. The percentage of teachers who are actually teaching in their area of major preparation ranges from 28 percent to 78 percent with a mean of 62 percent. (20, p. 156-157)

The problems of recruiting well qualified teachers makes the suggestion of utilization of differentiated staffing in ASOS highly appropriate. Tudor has developed a model for implementation of differentiated staffing in the American School Foundation in Mexico City. "It provides a plan for effectively utilizing teacher competencies" which is crucial when the supply is limited, salaries are low and effective teachers are hard to find. The concept also provides more individualization by extending the teacher's skills through use of a teaching team. The composition of the teaching team includes: (1) professional certified teachers, (2) student teachers/interns, (3) clerical personnel, and (4) non-professional teacher aides. The inclusion of the career ladder aspect of differentiated staffing provides the vehicle for on-the-job training of National teachers. (68, p. 72)

Some ASOS are attempting to upgrade their professional improvement programs and utilize them as an aspect of teacher benefits in an effort to attract qualified personnel. The Association of Binational Schools in Colombia has one function to combine efforts to improve the quality of the professional staffs. The Association enables the schools to provide greater variety of methods of staff improvement than one school alone would have. (39, p. 139) The Association has a long term contract with The University of Alabama funded by the A/OS providing for: (1) Graduate courses leading to a Master's degree, (2) Consultative services, (3) Student teacher assignments, and (4) General assistance in materials, curriculum planning, guidance and counseling, and testing and evaluation. (39, p. 138) The University of Alabama has also established a similar relationship with the ASOS in Ecuador, Iran, Madrid, and Mexico City.

Seaquist reports that 45 teachers in seven Colombian Association ASOS took advanced courses for graduate credit conducted on-site. "This signifies an upgrading

of professional staffs that can result in better instruction. As administrators and board members realize the advantages for the students that must accrue from such staff improvement, it seems inevitable that the numbers of teachers taking graduate courses will increase." (91, p. 218)

Another advantage of the use of an association of ASOS is reported by McWhorter:

> . . .sharing personnel by association schools provides opportunities to broaden individual school programs and teachers skills and experience. (39, p. 138)

McWhorter also reports the comparison of professional improvement programs in Colombia and Venezuela. He comments that:

> Venezuelan schools make a greater effort to improve staff through the use of school/community studies and curriculum committees than Colombian schools. (39, p. 139)

Mannino reports that several schools are attempting to retrain host country nationals for ASOS teaching and other professional positions in an effort to: (1) obtain and retrain quality teachers, and (2) counter the effects of the high rate of turnover among U.S. teachers. (36, p. 203) An example of this effort is the special "diploma" program for Mexican normalistas employed by the American School Foundation in Mexico City. The program involves completion of 45 credit hours of educational training at Michigan State University. (36, p. 218) School-to-School projects have aided in improving professional staffs. More than 20 non-American teachers in ASOS were in the first group of School-to-School project teachers serving in U.S. school systems, observing and teaching, and attending college and university courses. (35, p. 12)

Counce's study of the effectiveness of School-to-School projects reported the following opinions of both overseas and stateside respondents:

1. Involvement of teachers in overseas teaching experience had promoted individual understanding and knowledge necessary to quality performance in teaching. (94 percent positive)
2. Exchange of human resources has been successful. (83 percent positive: 88% stateside, 78% overseas)
3. School-to-School experiences have helped host country teachers be more effective in their teaching-learning experiences. (79 percent positive)
4. School-to-School projects have improved relationships between host country teachers and North American teachers. (78 percent positive)
5. There was evidence of better attitudes toward the U.S. education by host country teachers. (74 percent positive) (92, p. 103-104)

Counce concludes that "more needs to be done in allowing teachers from the overseas schools more experience in the stateside system." (92, p. 104)

Henken (1966), Williams (1965), Allar (1969), Israel (1967), and Bolger (1967) conducted personnel studies with some implications for some ASOS.

Henken (1966) investigated role conflict of teachers in an overseas technical assistance program. The study examined the relation of self-role conflict and conflict resulting from perceptual differences in role expectations to job satisfaction and job effectiveness. Subjects were 28 American teachers in the Northern Nigerian Teacher Education Project. The data gathered on each teacher included:

1) the principal's definition of the teacher's role
2) teacher's perception of principal's expectations
3) teacher's expression of his needs
4) teacher's evaluation of his satisfaction and effectiveness
5) principal/central office rating of teacher's effectiveness
6) descriptive information on each teacher

The study found no relationship between the two conflict indices and either job satisfaction of self-rated effectiveness. Age, sex, and experience were also not related. Other findings included:

1. There was a significant relation between needs and defined role and marital status; unmarried teachers had higher self-role conflict.
2. There was evidence of high disagreement between teacher's self rating and the principal's rating of effectiveness.
3. There was high correlation between job satisfaction scores and self-rated effectiveness scores.
4. There was a significant relation between the self rating of job satisfaction and effectiveness and age and experience; the older, more experienced teachers saw themselves as more effective and were more satisfied with their overseas assignment than the younger, less experienced.

Williams (1965) did an exploratory study of some of the factors that influenced selected teachers in becoming interested and involved in the area of international understanding. He found that personal contact with a professor or someone else who was vitally interested was the greatest influential factor; course work had little or no influence whatsoever.

Ferguson (1969) conducted a study of international hostility and related attitudes of prospective secondary school teachers. Subjects were graduating senior students in colleges of education. Using questionnaires and interviews, reported attitudes and knowledge about other nations were elicited. The author concluded that the evidence failed to support the argument that teacher education programs meaningfully influence international attitudes. He found also that there was a social factor related to generalized hostility; students believed they had the most knowledge about the nations toward which they had the most hostility.

A study conducted by Allar (1969) surveyed colleges and universities throughout the country for information concerning teacher education programs having any type of training in international education for elementary teachers. The study elicited information on the type and effectiveness of the international education experiences offered. While more respondents reported that they believed that direct, personal contact with a foreign culture was the most effective type of activity for training teachers to teach for international understanding, they considered it an unfeasible method due to costs and unmanageability. Seminars and institute activities on international education were considered the most effective manageable methods for training in international understanding. Courses were the type of experience offered most frequently.

B. L. Israel (1967) investigated the relationship between teachers' attitudes toward minority groups and their effectiveness as teachers of urban disadvantaged children. The study assessed whether teachers judged most competent by their principals expressed attitudes reflecting more favorable dispositions toward minor-

ity, ethnic and racial groups than teachers judged least competent. The instrument used was the Faunce Culturally Disadvantaged Questionnaire. Significant difference was obtained on 40 of the 186 items between the Highly Competent and Least Competent teachers. Many were directly related to age, teaching experience and family background. The two most significant variables that differentiated between the two groups were the educational level and occupational level of the teacher's father. Other findings and their implications included:

1. The principals (who had judged the competence of the teachers) had 62.5% agreement in attitudes with the teachers judged as Highly Competent which would imply that principals tended to judge as competent those teachers with attitudes most similar to their own.
2. Over half of the teachers judged as Least Competent expressed the desire to be teaching elsewhere and would rather not be teaching culturally disadvantaged children.
3. All teachers lacked knowledge of educational sociology, the culture of ethnic minorities, creativity and pupil mental hygiene. However, those judged Highly Competent had a better understanding of the culture of the disadvantaged child. They were more aware of the patterns of living in the sub-culture and viewed their students with greater empathy.

Israel recommended attitudinal screening of prospective teachers of disadvantaged children and a more intensive effort to assign teachers with positive attitudes and greater understanding to elementary schools in disadvantaged areas.

Bolger (1967) investigated, in a well-controlled manner, the effects of two levels of bilingual fluency of teachers on science achievement in a bilingual science program. The two levels of fluency were: 1) fluent in Spanish and English; 2) Spanish language oriented, familiar with the language but not fluent. Students were tested with standardized measures. Analysis of results was controlled for science ability and for bilingual dominance of the student, but was not controlled for use of Spanish outside school. Bolger found that students of Hispanic background had higher science achievement in the bilingual program only with the fluent teacher. He recommended that bilingual programs be staffed only by fluent Spanish speakers.

PUPILS

VIGNETTE

Eugene Row: Bilingualist and Average Student

At the age of four, Gene Row spoke no Arabic and his parents spoke only English. During nursery and kindergarten, one-third of his classmates spoke only Arabic and half spoke English, and the others spoke six other languages. The school program was structured to create bilingualism in Arabic and English. Gene was an average student with normal learning ability.

By the time Gene was six, he was pursuing a school day equally divided into instructional components in Arabic and English. He was also translating for his parents with the maid. His parents and visitors to the school tended to believe that he was very bright (they certainly hadn't learned Arabic after a few years).

The only thing that puzzled the visitors was that all of the children in Gene's class became bilingual with no particular effort.

VIGNETTE

Connie Brecker: Cross-Cultural Model

Connie was fluent in two languages and possessed a certain wisdom unusual for anyone, particularly for one who was sixteen. She had attended an ASOS which was average and had studied no more or no less than average students study in average schools. Connie at an early age began to observe that many of her fellow students and their parents "marched to a different drummer." Their culture, dress, beliefs, values and other characteristics often differed from what she had known. Her teacher often discussed with her class that peoples with different cultures could not only learn from each other but could also understand a contrasting or different belief or value against which they could test their own beliefs. Connie frequently thought about what she believed and why she believed it. She viewed differences as opportunities to learn. The major puzzle she couldn't unravel was why some of her classmates seemed to equate "different" with "bad", but of course she had not met their parents or former teachers so she couldn't understand the conditions that created ethnocentric behavior. Her wisdom grew, however, as she observed that many of these very same children changed when exposed to a variety of differences which were simply different – not good or bad.

Connie was a source of pride to her parents and to her teachers. Of greatest importance, however, was that Connie had pride in her own heritage and beliefs, based on understanding them and not on the degradation of others who were different.

Premises

The following premises relate to the Pupil category in the research matrix.

Premise: Pupils in the typical ASOS represent a cross section of the pupil population and even though generally from a higher economic background, their aptitudes will not vary significantly from the pupil population in a typical suburban U.S. school; therefore each ASOS should assure that program design is consistent with the educational needs of the children and youth it serves and not for an idealized pupil population. One may expect children to be one standard deviation above the mean on standardized tests of scholastic aptitude when their parents as a group are well educated, above average people.

For examples: (1) most ASOS operate as quasi-public schools and admit pupils with little attention to aptitude, (2) the ASOS which establishes itself as an exclusive private school probably fails to meet the criteria established for eligibility as an ASOS, (3) there is a fallacious tendency to assume that a school supported by tuition is of higher quality than a tax supported one in the U.S.; in fact many private schools in the U.S. operate at a lower per pupil expenditure for instruction than do public schools in high income areas, and (4) extra-ordinary but necessary operating expenses for non-instructional purposes in the typical ASOS reduce income available for instruction.

Premise: Graduates of the ASOS are assured the opportunity to pursue post-secondary education in the U.S. for all practical purposes; however, aptitude and achievement continue as significant factors in admission to many institutions of higher education.

For examples: (1) In the U.S., most junior and community colleges and some four year colleges have open door admission policies, (2) some universities have liberal admissions policies but high failure rates, (3) any high school graduate can avail himself of an opportunity for post-secondary education; however, the fit of the institution to the pupil is a vital function for which specialized school personnel are needed, and (4) results of tests of scholastic aptitude, as such, do not reflect that a school is providing either a superior or an inferior education and implying that the school is responsible – one way or the other – for such scores is intellectually dishonest as well as inaccurate.

Conspectus of Research

Five studies investigated aspects of ASOS pupil behavior. Several other studies examined the behavior of pupils in bilingual or bicultural programs.

Krajewski (1969) investigated the relationship between overseas school experience and subsequent academic adjustment to college in the United States. His student population had one year or more overseas secondary schooling and were grouped according to the sponsorship of their parents: (1) Department of Defense, (2) Missionary, (3) Business, and (4) Federal Government-Civilian. Academic adjustment was measured by the extent of congruence or correlation between student self-concept concerning academic abilities and aspirations and the realities of past and present academic achievement (the academic record). The findings for each of the four sponsorship groups included:

1) For students in the DOD group, there was little if any correlation between the facts of the academic record and the perceptions of academic abilities. The aspirations and self-concept significantly exceeded the record of achievement.
2) Students in the Missionary group were the highest achievers of the four groups but had the lowest aspirations and self-concepts.
3) Students in the Business-sponsored group were essentially similar to the DOD group but had the lowest records of achievement and had high aspirational and perceptual levels.
4) The Federal-Civilian group appeared to be the most adjusted of the four groups. There was relative balance between the facts of academic record and perceptual and aspirational levels.

Gleason (1970) analyzed social adjustment patterns and indications of world-mindedness of overseas-experienced American youth. Like the Krajewski study, sponsorship of parents overseas was the independent variable as well as the criteria for grouping the student subjects. All of the 157 college students in the study met the criteria of being American citizens, in dependent status while overseas, and had lived and studied abroad for at least one year. The subjects were screened and surveyed with two questionnaires and 37 were interviewed in-depth concerning the perceived effects of their overseas experience. Responses to questionnaires were submitted to the following analyses: frequency counts, preparation of contingency tables giving crossbreaks of fathers' overseas sponsorship and 65 dependent variables, and a program for detecting interaction effects among optimal combinations of explanatory variables.

General findings on the extent of overseas experience for the four sponsorship groups were important to interpretation of subsequent patterns of social adjustment

and indications of worldmindedness. Both missionary and business groups had an average overseas stay of five to ten years and had established a continuous, functional set of relationships with various segments of foreign societies. Both DOD and Federal-Civilian groups had been overseas four to five years on the average and while their experiences were roughly comparable in some areas, they differed somewhat from the Missionary and Business groups.

A higher number of problems was reported by those living overseas from three to seven years during grades 1-7. Changes in religious attitude, low income and living in more than four countries were associated with more reported problem areas. Missionary students lived overseas for the longest period and reported the lowest family incomes. Business students reported the most changes in religious attitudes. A lower problem total was associated with an annual family income of $11,000, an overseas stay of less than two years and moving less than three times while overseas. DOD and Missionary students reported slightly less commitment to a specified religious belief, while Federal-Civilian and Business students reported more of a change to liberal attitudes and practices. The most positive worldmindedness responses were associated with the following conditions: (1) Living five to seven years overseas during grades 1-7, (2) an extensive overseas stay during grades 1-7 and living five to six more years overseas during grades 8-13, (3) preference for an established political party rather than preference for 'no governance or independent,' (4) an annual family income of less than $20,000, and (5) three or more moves overseas.

Another study assessing worldmindedness attitudes among ASOS students was conducted by Beimler (1972) in the American School Foundation in Mexico City. The study examines the relationships between cross-cultural interactions and reported attitudes of worldmindedness among junior high school students in a binational school setting.

Malone (1966) conducted a comparative study of students' beliefs and knowledge concerning Latin America and the United States. The subjects in the study included students in several ASOS in Latin America and in a selected public school in the United States. The study utilized a questionnaire to survey the selected students concerning topics of greatest understanding and misconceptions about the United States and Latin America. Responses indicated that students in both school settings have only very general knowledge and fairly stereotypical beliefs about the United States and Latin America. The author then made recommendations to foster international educational goals. The study also presented background information on international education in general, aspects of Latin American culture and a description of U.S. assistance to Latin American countries.

Patterson (1960) made a comparison of the performances of Mexican and American children in an ASOS setting on measures of ability, achievement and adjustment. Subjects were students in the American High School in Mexico City and were tested with a variety of instruments. Some of the findings included:

1. Differences in ability between Mexican and American students were essentially related to English language proficiency.
2. Over all there was no difference in total achievement; however, American students scored better in reading comprehension, verbal tasks and logical reasoning.
3. There was no significant difference on personal adjustment measures.
4. Mexican students found it more difficult to adjust to the binational school

setting. They tended to develop more nationality consciousness which may have inhibited the establishment of good peer relationships.

5. Both Mexican and American students generally accepted the American High School; only one in five reported any evidence of dissatisfaction.

6. Both Mexican and American students were generally accepted by the student body as a whole; 65 percent reported active participation in school activities.

7. Both Mexican and American students tended to choose their vocations from limited possibilities which may be a function of socio-economic class. The age at which the choice was made was about the same for both groups.

A major aspect of Fraser's study (1970) involved the measurement of bilingual achievement of students in eight ASOS in Latin America in order to compare the outcomes of various types of bilingual programs. A total randomly selected sample of 678 students from grades one through twelve was tested with the language-related instruments of the Cooperative Inter-American tests in English and Spanish. Test scores, length of time in the program and grades in English and Spanish were utilized as variables to determine whether significant separation could be obtained with discriminant analysis between the major types of language program organizations identified. Language program organizations were differentiated by the amount of time and the amount of instructional use given each language.

Two patterns were identified at the elementary level: equal time and use of both languages; and unequal time and use with English predominant. Discriminant analysis indicated that the outcomes of these two types of programs were significantly different to the .001 level in every case, and were different to the .0001 level of significance when subjects were grouped by native language.

Three organizational patterns were identified at the secondary level: equal time and use of both languages, equal time and unequal use with Spanish predominant, and equal time and unequal use with English predominant. Discriminant analysis indicated significant difference in the outcomes of the three types to the .001 level and to the .0001 level of significance when subjects were grouped by native language.

Evidence of bilinguality was indicated by the amount of difference between the scores on English and Spanish measures. The conclusions of the study included:

1. When native language was not considered, programs incorporating equal time and use of both languages appeared most likely to produce bilinguality.

2. When results were controlled for native language, equal time and use programs were most effective only for native English-speaking students. Native Spanish speaking students in these programs had lower mean scores on English measures than students in other programs.

3. Predominantly English language programs appeared to be more effective in producing bilinguality for native Spanish-speaking students at both the elementary and secondary levels. However, native English-speaking students in these programs had lower scores on Spanish measures than students in equal time programs.

4. Native Spanish-speaking students in programs with English predominant had higher mean scores on Spanish measures than native Spanish speakers

in both equal time and Spanish predominant programs.

One additional result was interesting in that it contradicted one of the cardinal principles of second language teaching. In several schools, native Spanish-speaking students began English reading instruction before learning to read in their native Spanish with little or no detrimental effect to Spanish or English language achievement measures. In fact, this occurred in programs most associated with producing bilinguality for native Spanish speakers. Fraser commented that investigation of the social climate in these schools and particularly the status accorded each language in the school and home environments would most likely be helpful in explaining this result.

Several other studies were found which explored pupil behavior in multi-cultural school environments in the United States.

Beecher (1968) sought to determine the patterns of acceptance and rejection between Puerto Rican and Negro students in New York City. Three hypotheses were tested.

1. That social distance was related to length of residence and residential proximity. Part of this hypothesis was supported. The Ohio Social Acceptance Scale was administered and length of residence did correlate significantly with a .397, but residential proximity did not appear to have a relation.
2. That skin color was related to socio-metric choices. This hypothesis was not supported.
3. That when either group was in the minority, acceptance scores would be higher than when both were in the minority or in the majority. The reverse of this hypothesis was supported.

Beecher concluded that "the social climate of the school environment rather than the variables measured was largely responsible for positive relationships between the two ethnic minorities in the sample."

Parmee (1966) investigated the perceptions of personal and social problems by students of different ethnic backgrounds. The study analyzed problems reported by Mexican-American, Anglo-American and Negro students in terms of their relationship to ethnic or adolescent influences. The author concluded that the reported problems indicated participation in the large American adolescent culture as well as the culture of the ethnic group, and in fact, more problem areas reflected general adolescent concerns than ethnic differences. The most apparent ethnic differences were found in problems related to personality and self-concept. Negro and Mexican-American students reported low self-concept in terms of physical appearance, personality assessment and estimation of ability. Mexican and Anglo students expressed the desire for social improvement, Anglos more so than Mexican. Negro students expressed the least number of problems; however, the effects of racial prejudice and social rejection were evident in their responses.

Plott (1967) analyzed the characteristics of Mexican-American and Anglo-American students who were participants in co-curricular activities. The study examined the characteristics of school adjustment, school attendance, educational development, academic grades, pupil attitudes and physical characteristics of boys as factors of possible difference between participants and non-participants in co-curricular activities. Findings were:

1. Both Mexican-American and Anglo participants had better scores on the Iowa Test of Educational Development and had better academic grade averages than non-participants.
2. Anglos had better scores on educational development measure, but the educationally advantaged did not do better on this measure than the educationally disadvantaged.
3. There was no difference in physical characteristics between participants and non-participants.
4. All groups were remarkably homogeneous on attitude measures.

The author concluded that participants and non-participants in co-curricular activities do not differ significantly in school attendance, on attitude and adjustment measures, or in physical characteristics.

CHAPTER II
THE RESEARCH MATRIX

INTRODUCTION

This Research Matrix is designed to assist in identifying and categorizing research conducted concerning education as it relates to the American Sponsored Overseas School (ASOS). The matrix system was developed to serve as a guide to synthesize information available at the time of the study.

The overseas schools are dynamic and of great interest to the student of international affairs and of cross-cultural education. The serious reader may well use the matrix for an expanded taxonomy to classify the developing literature on a continuing basis.

The use of this matrix and the value to the user should vary according to the purposes for which it is used. For the person deeply interested or vitally concerned, it will be useful as a base and a model for continuing study, adaptation, and expansion. For most readers, it will serve three major purposes: (1) to provide a systematic analysis of research which has been accomplished and thus avoid unintended duplication, (2) to identify voids in the existing research base and thereby assist potential researchers in adding to the existing literature, and (3) to provide a wealth of information for anyone concerned with the topics covered. The latter should be of particular interest to board members, administrators, and teachers in the ASOS or contemplating involvement.

CODING SYSTEM

This matrix indicates the categories of information included by the author in his study. The following coding system has been developed in order to report the nature of the information within individual categories.

The reporting code attempts to differentiate three types of information. These three are: (1) Statistical Data, (2) Descriptive/Historical Data, and (3) Prescriptive/Theoretical Data. Each type is described on the following page.

Statistical Data: This category includes all quantified information that allows the author to compare and contrast populations using statistically analytic procedures made possible by the utilization of standardized measurement scales. Examples include all experimental studies in which variables are manipulated and measurements taken, and all studies in which quantified information is statistically analyzed.

Descriptive/Historical Data: This category includes all studies which attempt to report an accurate picture of things as they are or were. Examples would include descriptions of programs, physical plants, organizational structures and the like. Where several examples are compared, and differences are reported by the author in a narrative commentary, such comparative studies would remain in the Descriptive/Historical category. However, aspects of comparative studies which have been quantified and for which measurable differences have been statistically analyzed, these aspects would be placed in the Statistical Data category. In many instances, studies will include both types of data. The data are typed as sensitively as possible, using the sub-categories of the matrix to permit various aspects of the study to be reported.

Prescriptive/Theoretical Data: This type of data differs from that found in both the Statistical and Descriptive/Historical types because it deals with idealized concepts. Theoretical data referred to in this typology includes models and conceptualizations of programs, such as generalized models of bilingual programs and theoretical models such as organizational models, planning models, school/community interaction models and so on. These differ from descriptive studies in that they are generalized models from which specific examples may be expected to differ. Prescriptive data and theoretical data are complementary because they both deal with idealizations from which reality may be expected to depart. Prescriptive data largely takes the form of expressions by parties associated with the overseas schools on "how things ought to be" in contrast with studies which focus on how things are.

Each of the three data types identified in the code is further divided into three levels for reporting data sensitivity. These levels are differentiated by the degree of control exercised by the author over the initiation, production and collection of data from which his study is drawn. While practices will vary in the different types of data, in each instance the most sensitive level is considered to be data which the researching author selected for collection, exercised personal control over its collection and can most reliably report. Each of the levels within the three data types are described as follows:

1. **Statistical Data**:

Level A. The author selected or developed the instruments with which quantified data were collected, was responsible for establishing the conditions under which the instruments were administered, and collected the resultant data for analysis. The author was personally on site at the time of instrument administration.

Level B. The author selected or developed the data collecting instruments and initiated their administration. However, he relied upon other personnel for implementation, and though he provided guidance, he did not exercise personal control over the data collection process. The author did assemble and analyze resultant data.

Level C. The author did not exercise personal discretion in the selection of instruments but selected data available from instruments administered previously for some other purpose. He did not initiate the original data collection process and so can only infer the conditions under which the data was collected. This level would include studies utilizing previously taken measures such as IQ scores, achievement test scores and other similar measures found in student records.

2. Descriptive/Historical Data

Level A. The author personally observed the situations or conditions being described. He developed or selected the observational instruments and personally supervised the collection of the observational data. In the case of historical studies, the author utilized primary source documents, such as original records, correspondence, memoranda and the like, or interviews with individuals having first-hand knowledge of past conditions.

Level B. The author selected or developed the instruments with which the information was reported. However, he relied on other personnel to make the actual observations or report the information to him. Examples at this level would be studies utilizing survey questionnaires, postal questionnaires and interviews with involved personnel eliciting descriptive information. Historical studies at this level utilized summary reports and other materials prepared by involved personnel at the time or soon after the time being studied.

Level C. The author utilized information for his study which had been previously prepared for some other purpose. Examples of studies at this level would be those which utilized information collected by or for accreditation associations, previous studies, Office of Overseas Schools reports and other previously published materials and information. Historical studies at this level would be those utilizing previously published interpretative materials, such as dissertations, books, articles and other writings which present an interpretative view of the period being studied.

3. Prescriptive/Theoretical Data:

Level A. The author developed the theoretical concepts, models, or prescriptions reported. He personally collected or supervised the collection of the observations and data on which the theoretical concept is based. The data was collected and assembled for the express purpose of the study.

Level B. The author developed the theoretical concepts, models, or prescriptions reported, but he utilized as a basis for his study, information and previously published material and writings which had first been collected for some other purpose. He did not initiate the collection of the data and so can only infer the conditions under which it was first assembled.

Level C. The author did not develop the theoretical concepts, models or prescriptions reported, but his study consists of an explication, translation, interpretation or clarification of theoretical concepts previously developed. Modifications or applications of existing theoretical concepts to the overseas school context would be classified in this category.

REGIONAL CODE

In order to identify the geographic region in which the study was conducted, code number(s) in the column marked Region are used. The code numbers and corresponding regions follow:

1 Far East
2 Near East/South Asia
3 Africa
4 Eastern Europe
5 Western Europe
6 Mexico/Central America
7 South America
8 North America
9 World
N Specific country designation

Several authors treated more than one item which appears in the Research Matrix. Some items are treated in a tangential or minor way, and these are differentiated from major treatment by including the code number in parentheses.

The preceding discussion of the matrix and coding system is simplified to facilitate understanding and to accelerate the use of the matrix.

SIMPLIFIED CODING SYSTEM

1. Statistical Data
   - A. Standardized measurement
   - B. Author-developed collecting instrument or process
   - C. Data already collected by someone else
2. Descriptive/Historical
   - A. Direct observation or primary source documents
   - B. Observations by others and previously reported information
   - C. Use of information originally prepared for other purposes
3. Prescriptive/Theoretical
   - A. Author developed theoretical concepts, models, prescriptions, etc. on basis of data he collected
   - B. Author developed theoretical, ... , etc. on basis of data others collected
   - C. Author expanded or analyzed concepts, models, etc. developed by others

( ) = Minor treatment

REGION

1. Far East
2. Near East/South Asia
3. Africa
4. Eastern Europe
5. Western Europe
6. Mexico/Central America
7. South America
8. North America
9. World
N. Specific country designation

The following outline of topics included in the Research Matrix will facilitate the location of any single item.

THE RESEARCH MATRIX

MATRIX OUTLINE

I. School Setting

A. Macro-Societal Setting

1. Geographic Factors
2. Family Structure
3. Social Class Patterns
4. Cultural/Religious Orientation
5. Enculturating Educational Practices
6. Host Country Economic Characteristics
7. Host Country Political Profile
8. Politicization of Host Country Education
9. Cross-Cultural Studies: United States and Host Country

B. Micro-Societal Setting (School Clientele)

1. National Cultural Make-Up
2. Bilinguality
3. Socio-Economic Characteristics
4. Political Status in Host Country
5. Cross-Cultural Attitudes
6. Attitudes Toward Host Country Education
7. Attitudes—World Citizenship
8. Philosophic/Religious Orientation
9. Values Related to Education
10. School Community Relationships

II. School Institutionalization

A. Institutional Foundations

1. Origins and Historical Development
2. Rationale for Development
3. Institutional Ownership, Governance, and Perpetuation
4. Legal Status in Host Country Government Relationship
5. Parameters of Activity: Accrediting Associations Relations, and so forth

B. Institutional Purpose

1. Philosophy and Objectives
2. Policy Development

C. Sources of Support

1. Client Derived
2. By External Sources

D. Inter-Institutional Relationships

1. Regional Accrediting Associations
2. Consortia
3. U. S. Schools
4. Host National Schools
5. Universities
6. U. S. Government

III. **School Organization and Administration**

A. Administrative Structure

1. Executive
2. Supervisory
3. Instructional Division
4. Ancillary Divisions

B. Administrative Mode

C. Administrative Functions

1. Planning
2. Financial Management
3. Recruitment, Selection and Assessment of Personnel
4. Pupil Selection and Admission
5. Program Evaluative
6. Development of Financial Resources
7. Personnel Improvement
8. Physical Plant Development
9. Physical Plant Maintenance

D. Provision of Supportive Services

1. Counseling and Guidance
2. Testing and Evaluation
3. Transportation

IV. **School Program**

A. Curriculum and Instruction

1. Curriculum Development
2. Curriculum Organization
3. Program Objectives
4. Cognitive Content
5. Affective Content
6. Psychomotor Content
7. Instructional Resources
8. Characteristics of Instruction
9. Instructional Objectives
10. Curriculum Evaluation and Assessment

11. Co-Curricular Activities
12. Curriculum Models

B. Related Literature

1. Bi/Multi-Lingual Education
2. Bi/Multi-Cultural Education
3. Teaching English as Second Language
4. Other Second Language Teaching
5. Advantages and Implications of Bilingualism
6. Measurement of Bilingualism
7. Value and Attitude Development
8. Value Teaching

V. Personnel

A. Full-Time Personnel

1. General Characteristics
2. Nationality
3. Bilinguality
4. Mobility
5. Academic Preparation
6. Professional Preparation
7. Exceptional and Specialized Competencies
8. Salaries and Fringe Benefits
9. In-Service Training
10. Cross-Cultural Professional Opportunities
11. Academic Opportunities
12. Professional Associations
13. Attitudinal Studies

B. Part-Time Personnel

1. General Characteristics
2. Nationality
3. Bilinguality
4. Mobility
5. Academic Preparation
6. Professional Preparation
7. Exceptional and Specialized Competencies
8. Salaries and Fringe Benefits
9. In-Service Training
10. Cross-Cultural Professional Opportunities
11. Academic Opportunities
12. Professional Associations
13. Attitudinal Studies

C. Auxiliary Para-Professional Personnel

1. General Characteristics

2. Salaries and Fringe Benefits
3. Professional Preparation
4. On-Job Training Opportunities
5. Academic Training Opportunities
6. Assignment
7. Advancement to Professional Status

VI. Pupils

A. Profile

1. Pupil Profile
2. Nationality
3. Mobility
4. Bilinguality

B. Pupil Achievement/School

1. Cognitive
2. General Affective
3. Cultural Values, Attitudes, Beliefs
4. Psychomotor

C. Pupil Achievement/Follow-up Studies

D. Pupil Behavior in Multi-cultural Setting

Note: In several cases, authors were requested to encode their research on the Research Matrix. A sample from such cases was verified. In most cases, encoding was effected by the author of the publication.

I. SCHOOL SETTING

1. SCHOOL SETTING

Author/Date See bibliography for full citation. The number left of the citation refers to the bibliography for the matrix	A. MACRO-SOCIETAL SETTING									B. MICRO-SOCIETAL SETTING (School Clientele)										Region
	Geographic Factors	Family Structure	Social Class Patterns	Cult/Relg. Orientations	Enculturating Ed. Pract.	HC Econ. Characteristics	HC Political Profile	Politicization of HC Ed.	Cross-Cult. Studies US-HC	Natl/Cult. Make-up	Bilinguality	Socio-Econ. Char.	Polit. Status in HC	Cross-cultural attitudes	Attitudes toward HC. Ed.	Attitudes - world citizen.	Philosophic/Relg. Orien.	Values related to Ed.	Sch/Comm. Relationship	
3. Ahmed (1962)					2	2														Pakistan
5. Amare (1964)			2AB	2AB																Ethiopia
8. Anderson & Orr (1972)														2A 3A		2A 3A		2A 3A		8
11. Anderson & Orr (1972)										2C	2C							2A		6
24. Belmler (1972)		(2A)		(2A)	(3A)				1B	(1B)	(1B)			1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	
25. Bentz (1971)										2C	2C	2C			2C			2C	2C	6
30. Buck (1967)				2	2															Central African Rep.
33. Cardenal (1968)	2		2	2	23	2														Nicaragua
34. Carter (1965)			2C		2	2C	2C													Peru
35. Chardrasekharaiah (1968)				2A																India
41. Danielson (1966)					2C	2C														Philippines
43. DeVera (1967)					2															Japan

1. SCHOOL SETTING (continued)

A. MACRO-SOCIETAL SETTING

B. MICRO-SOCIETAL SETTING (School Clientele)

Author/Date	Geographic Factors	Family Structure	Social Class Patterns	Cult/Relg. Orientations	Enculturating Ed. Pract.	HC Econ. Characteristics	HC Political Profile	Politicization of HC Ed.	Cross-Cult. Studies US-HC	Natl/Cult. Make-up	Bilinguality	Socio-Econ. Char.	Polit. Status in HC	Cross-cultural attitudes	Attitudes toward HC Ed.	Attitudes - world citizen.	Philosophic/Relg. Orien.	Values related to Ed.	Sch/Comm. Relationship	Region
47. Fernandez (1966)					2B 3A				2B											India-U.S.
54. Fox, Burton B. (1969) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
56. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
57. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
58. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
59. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
60. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
61. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
62. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
63. Fox, Burton B. (1970) Ed.	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B											6 & 7
68. Freisen (1966)				1A					1A											Colombia, Peru, U.S.

1. SCHOOL SETTING (continued)

	A. MACRO-SOCIETAL SETTING									B. MICRO-SOCIETAL SETTING (School Clientele)										
Author/Date	Geographic Factors	Family Structure	Social Class Patterns	Cult/Relg. Orientations	Enculturating Ed. Pract.	HC Econ. Characteristics	HC Political Profile	Politicization of HC Ed.	Cross-Cult. Studies US-HC	Nat'l/Cult. Make-up	Bilinguality	Socio-Econ. Char.	Polit. Status in HC	Cross-cultural attitudes	Attitudes toward HC Ed.	Attitudes - world citizen.	Philosophic/Relg. Orien.	Values related to Ed.	Sch/Comm. Relationship	Region
70. Georgiades (1966)			2C		3A	2C														Cyprus
72. Gomez (1968)				2B	2AB			2B												Portugal
73. Goodson (1970)		3C	3C	3C	3C				3C	3C				3C						7, 8
75. Grant (1968)	2C		2C		1A	2C	2C													Nigeria
81. Hosseini (1966)					2															Iran
83. Hussey (1967)				1C 2B 3B	1C 2B 3B	1C 2B 3B	(1C) (2B) (3B)		1C 2B 3B		1C 2B 3B			(1C) 2B 3B						North American (U.S.)
87. Jolly (1966)							2C													Africa (3)
88. Kahn (1967)					2															East Pakistan
90. Kilgo (1966)					2															El Salvador
92. Kirkpatrick				(2A)	(2A)					(2A)										Mexico City
99. Lee (1968)	2B				(3A)				(2C)	(2C)	(2C)			1B		1B		1B	2A	8-7

1. SCHOOL SETTING (continued)

A. MACRO-SOCIETAL SETTING

B. MICRO-SOCIETAL SETTING (School Clientele)

Author/Date	Geographic Factors	Family Structure	Social Class Patterns	Cult/Relg. Orientations	Enculturating Ed. Pract.	HC Econ. Characteristics	HC Political Profile	Politicization of HC Ed.	Cross-Cult. Studies US-HC	Natl/Cult. Make-up	Bilinguality	Socio-Econ. Char.	Polit. Status in HC	Cross-cultural attitudes	Attitudes toward HC. Ed.	Attitudes - world citizen.	Philosophic/Relg. Orien.	Values related to Ed.	Sch/Comm. Relationship	Region
103. Malik (1966)					3C															Pakistan
105. Mannino (1971)												2B								9
108. McGugan (1970)												(2B)								6, 7
109. McWhorter (1969)						(2A)	(2A)	(2A)		1A			1A	1A	1A		(1A)	1A		7
110. Medallada (1968)			2		2BC	2BC														Taiwan, Mexico
115. Noor (1965)					2															Philippines, Japan, East Pakistan
117. Orr (1964)				2C			2B					1B								Latin America
118. Orr & Seaquist (1968)										1B	1B								1B	Colombia, Haiti
119. Orr (1963)		1A	1A	1A	2A	2C	2C		1B			1A						1A		Mexico
121. Orr (1968)																				Colombia
122. Orr & Lee (1968)																1A		1A		Colombia
126. Orr & Others (1972)										2C	2C			2C		2C				9

1. SCHOOL SETTING (continued)

A. MACRO-SOCIETAL SETTING | B. MICRO-SOCIETAL SETTING (School Clientele)

Author/Date	Geographic Factors	Family Structure	Social Class Patterns	Cult/Relg. Orientations	Enculturating Ed. Pract.	HC Econ. Characteristics	HC Political Profile	Politicization of HC Ed.	Cross-Cult. Stuidies US-HC	Natl/Cult. Make-up	Bilinguality	Socio-Econ. Char.	Polit. Status in HC	Cross-cultural attitudes	Attitudes toward HC.Ed.	Attitudes - world citizen	Philosophic/Relg.Orien.	Values related to Ed.	Sch/Comm.Relationship	Region
127. Orr, Anderson, & Forehand (1971)		2A									1B		2A							Costa Rica
132. Patel (1965)					2B															India
138. Payne (1967)				2A																Bolivia
141. Peseau (1972)		3A	3A	3A	3A		3A		3A					3A			3A			7
142. Peseau (1969)						2C	2C	2C				2C							2C	7
143. Peseau (1969)			2C	2C	2C			2C	2C								2C	2C		7
144. Peseau (1970)								2A									2A		2A	7
145. Peseau (1971)			2A	2A					2A	2A		2A	2A	2A	2A		2A	2A	2A	7
149. Peseau (1970)			3C	3C			3C	3C	3C				3C							7
150. Peseau (1971)		3A	3A	3A					3A			3A		3A			3A			7
155. Roth (1967)									1B											England-U.S.
160. Saleh (1966)					2															Jordan

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1. SCHOOL SETTING (continued)

A. MACRO-SOCIETAL SETTING

B. MICRO-SOCIETAL SETTING (School Clientele)

Author/Date	Geographic Factors	Family Structure	Social Class Patterns	Cult/Relg. Orientations	Enculturating Ed.Pract.	HC Econ. Characteristics	HC Political Profile	Politicization of HC Ed.	Cross-Cult.Studies US-HC	Natl/Cult. Make-up	Bilinguality	Socio-Econ. Char.	Polit. Status in HC	Cross-cultural attitudes	Attitudes toward HC.Ed.	Attitudes - world citizen.	Philosophic/Relg.Orien.	Values related to Ed.	Sch/Comm.Relationship	Region
164. Sekhri (1967)					2			2												India
165. Shimahara (1967)					2															Japan
166. Silpa-Anan (1972)																				
167. Sokol (1972)							(2B)	(2A)	2C					1B	1B			2A	1B	Colombia
169. Stephens (1969)			2				2												2A	Peru
177. Tudor (1972)						(3A)	(3A)			(2A)	(2A)	(3C)	(3C)	(3C)					(3C)	6
182. Weaver (1966)	2A	2AC	2AC	2AC	3A	2AC														Congo
186. Wenner (1970)														2B						Germany,E.Asia
188. White (1965)					2	2														Peru
190. Wilson (1966)					2C															Ecuador
192. Zaki (1968)			2C		2 3A	2C	2C													UAR

II. SCHOOL INSTITUTIONALIZATION

II. SCHOOL INSTITUTIONALIZATION

Author/Date	A. Institutional Foundations: Origins & Hist. Develop.	Rationale for Development	Inst. Ownership, gov. & Perpetuation	Legal status in HC-Gov. Relationship	Parameters of Activity-Accrediting Assoc. Rel., etc.	B. Institutional Purpose: Philosophy & Objectives	Policy Development	C. Sources of Support: Client-Derived Resources	Support by External Agencies	D. Inter-Institutional Relationships: Regional Associations	Consortia	US Schools (Sch.-to-Sch.)	Host National Schools	Universities	US Government	Region
7. Anderson (1972)						(2A)	(2A)			3A				3A	(3A)	9
8. Anderson & Orr (1972)						(2A)	(2A) 3A		(3A)			3A	(3A)	(3A)	(3A)	8
9. Anderson (1972)		2C			2C					2A	2A			2A	2A	6-7-8
10. Anderson & Orr (1972)										3AC	3AC			3AC	3AC	6-7-8
11. Anderson & Orr (1972)	2C		2C	2C	2A	2C	2A	2C	2C							6
22. Beans (1968)	2AB					2	2									Brazil
24. Belmler (1972)						(3A)										6
25. Bentz (1971)	2C	(2C)	2C	2C	2C	2C		2C	2C	2C			2C	2C	2C	6
29. Bruce (1973)											3A					4
32. Burns (1972)											3A				3A	9
38. Counce (1971)												2B				6

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II. SCHOOL INSTITUTIONALIZATION (continued)

Author/Date	A. Institutional Foundations: Origins & Hist. Develop.	A. Institutional Foundations: Rationale for Development	A. Institutional Foundations: Inst. Ownership, gov. & Perpetuation	A. Institutional Foundations: Legal status in HC-Gov. Relationship	A. Institutional Foundations: Parameters of Activity-Accrediting Assoc. Rel., etc.	B. Institutional Purpose: Philosophy & Objectives	B. Institutional Purpose: Policy Development	C. Sources of Support: Client-Derived Resources	C. Sources of Support: Support by External Agencies	D. Inter-Institutional Relationships: Regional Associations	D. Inter-Institutional Relationships: Consortia	D. Inter-Institutional Relationships: US Schools (Sch.-to-Sch.)	D. Inter-Institutional Relationships: Host National Schools	D. Inter-Institutional Relationships: Universities	D. Inter-Institutional Relationships: US Government	Region
40. Cutting (1969)					1B (3A)					1B (3A)						6-7
48. Fidan (1971)							2AB									Turkey
51. Fox (1970)										2A						7
52. Fox (1970)						2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B				6 & 7
53. Fox (1969)					1B											6 & 7
54. Fox (1970)					2BC						2A					7 & 9
83. Hussey (1967)									1C					2B		North America (U.S.)
92. Kirkpatrick							(2A)		(2A)	(2A)	(2A)	(2A)		(2A)	(2A)	Mexico City
99. Lee						1				2C	2B	(2B)	(2C)	2A		7-8
105. Mannino (1971)	3A	3A			3A			3A	3A					3A	3A	9
108. McGugan (1970)															2	7

II. SCHOOL INSTITUTIONALIZATION (continued)

	A. Institutional Foundations					B. Institutional Purpose		C. Sources of Support		D. Inter-Institutional Relationships							
Author/Date	Origins & Hist.Develop.	Rationale for Development	Inst. Ownership, gov. & Perpetuation	Legal status in HC-Gov. Relationship	Parameters of Activity-Accrediting Assoc. Rel., etc.	Philosophy & Objectives	Policy Development	Client-Derived Resources	Support by External Agencies	Regional Associations	Consortia	US Schools (Sch.-to-Sch.)	Host National Schools	Universities	US Government	Comparative Studies	Region
109. McWhorter (1969)	2A 2B 2C	2C	1B 1C	1B 1C		1B 1C		1B 1C	1B 1C							2	7
117. Orr (1964)	1B	2A	1B	2A		1B	1B							2C	2C		Latin-America
118. Orr & Seaquist (1968)										2B							Haiti
119. Orr (1962)								1B	2A								Mexico
125. Orr & Anderson (1972)										2A	2A	2A		2A			8
126. Orr & Others (1972)											3A	3A					9
144. Peseau (1970)	2A												2A				7
145. Peseau (1971)	2A	2A	2A	2A		2A		2A	2A								7
154. Ronsheim (1967)	2BC					(2B)											5

Author/Date	A. Institutional Foundations					B. Institutional Purpose		C. Sources of Support		D. Inter-Institutional Relationships						
	Origins & Hist. Develop.	Rationale for Development	Inst. Ownership, gov. & Perpetuation	Legal Status in HC-Gov. Relationship	Parameters of Activity-Accrediting Assoc. Rel., etc.	Philosophy & Objectives	Policy Development	Client-Derived Resources	Support by External Agencies	Regional Associations	Consortia	US Schools (Sch.-to-Sch.)	Host National Schools	Universities	US Government	Region
163. Seaquist (1968)	2B		(2B)				(2B)	2	2	2				2AB		Colombia
167. Sokol (1972)	(2B)		(2B)	(2B)	(2C)	(2C)	(2C)	(2C)	(2C)	(2B)		(2B)	2A 2B		2A 2B	Colombia
177. Tudor (1972)	(2B)	(2C)				(3B)										Mexico
191. Young (1960)						2A 2B										6-7

III. SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

III. SCHOOL ORGANIZATION & ADMINISTRATION

	A. Adm. Structure					B. Administrative Functions								C. Provision of Supportive Services				
Author/Date	Executive	Supervisory	Instructional Divs.	Ancillary Divs.	Administrative Mode	Planning	Financial Mgm.	Recruitment Selct. & Assm. of Personnel	Pupil Selection/Adm.	Program Evaluation	Dev. of Financial Resources	Personnel Improvement	Physical Plant Dev.	Physical Plant Maint.	Counseling & Guidance	Testing & Evaluation	Transportation	Other_____	Region
7. Anderson (1972)						1A	X	1A	X	1A	X	3A	X	X					9
11. Anderson & Orr (1972)	2C	2C	2C				2C	2C	2C		2C	2C	2C	2A	2A	2A	2A		6
24. Beimler (1972)										(3A)									6
25. Bentz (1971)	2C				2C		2C	2C	2C										6-7
26. Bjork (1965)						3A													7
29. Bruce						1B													4
32. Burns (1972)						3A													9
40. Cutting (1969)										1B (3A)									7
44. Domidion (1964)		3A						3A						3A					9
52. Fox (1970)						2A	2A												6 & 7
64. Fox (1970)								2B											6 & 7
66. Fraser (1971)								2A											6, 7

III. SCHOOL ORGANIZATION & ADMINISTRATION (continued)

Author/Date	A. Adm. Structure: Executive	Supervisory	Instructional Divs.	Ancillary Divs.	Administrative Mode	B. Administrative Functions: Planning	Financial Mgm.	Recruitment Selct. & Assm. of Personnel	Pupil Selection/Adm.	Program Evaluation	Dev. of Financial Resources	Personnel Improvement	Physical Plant Dev.	Physical Plant Maint.	C. Provision of Supportive Svcs.: Counseling & Guidance	Testing & Evaluation	Transportation	Other _____	Region
83. Hussey (1967)												1C 2B 3B							8
92. Kirkpatrick	(2A)	(2A)	(2A)			(2A)				(2A)		2A 3A							6
99. Lee (1968)			1B			3A				1B									7-8
105. Mannino (1971)	3A	3A	3A	3A		3A		3A		3A	3A	3A			3A				9
109. McWhorter (1969)					1B 1C 2C		1A 1C				2A		1B 1C		1B 1C	(1B) (1C)			7
117. Orr (1964)	(1B)				1B		(1B)					(1B)							Philippines
118. Orr & Seaquist (1968)	(2B)		(2B)		1B														Haiti-7
119. Orr (1962)											1B								Mexico
133. Patterson (1970)	2C 3B				2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B		2C 3B	2C 3B		2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B		6

Author/Date	A. Adm. Structure					B. Administrative Functions									C. Provision of Supportive Services				Region
	Executive	Supervisory	Instructional Divs.	Ancillary Divs.	Administrative Mode	Planning	Financial Mgm.	Recruitment Selct. & Assm. of Personnel	Pupil Selection/Adm.	Program Evaluation	Dev. of Financial Resources	Personnel Improvement	Physical Plant Dev.	Physical Plant Maint.	Counseling & Guidance	Testing & Evaluation	Transportation	Other ____	
135. Patterson (1960)	1B	1B	1B		1B	1B		1B		1B		1B			1B	1B			6
136. Patterson (1970)	2B						2B												6
137. Patterson (1969)	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B			6
163. Seaquist (1968)						2AB													Colombia, Haiti
167. Sokol (1972)					(2A)			2A	(2A)			2A			(2A)				Colombia
170. Taylor (1970)								3A				3A							9
177. Tudor (1972)	2B	2C				3C		3C		3C		3C							6
187. Werstler (1964)													2						5

IV. SCHOOL PROGRAM

IV. SCHOOL PROGRAM

Author/Date	A. Curriculum and Instruction												B. Related Literature								Region
	Curriculum Development	Curr. Organization	Program Objectives	Cognitive Content	Affective Content	Psychomotor Content	Instructional Resources (materials/technology)	Char. of Instructional Methods	Instructional Objectives	Curr. Eval. & Assessment	Co-curricular Activities	Curriculum Models	Bi-/Multi-Lingual Ed.	Bi-/Multi-Cultural Ed.	Teach. Eng. as a Sec. Lang.	Other Sec. Lang. Teaching	Advantages/Implications of Bilingualism	Measurement of Bilingualism	Value/Attitude Dev.	Value Teaching	
3. Ahmed (1962)							2B							2B							United States
8. Anderson & Orr (1972)	3A	3A	3A	3A	3A	3A	2A	3A	3A	3A	3A	3A									8
9. Anderson (1972)							2C	2C				2C									8
10. Anderson & Orr (1972)							3AC	3AC				3AC	3A	3A							6-7-8
11. Anderson & Orr (1972)		2C	2C				2C														6
12. Anderson (1965)					2B		2B	2B	2B					2B							8
13. Anderson (1962)														2AB							8
16. Atkyns (1958)			3B	3B	3B			3B						3B							8
18. Baca (1956)														2B							8
20. Barclay (1969)				1A									1A		1A						8

IV. SCHOOL PROGRAM (continued)

Author/Date	A. Curriculum and Instruction												B. Related Literature								
	Curriculum Development	Curr. Organization	Program Objectives	Cognitive Content	Affective Content	Psychomotor Content	Instructional Resources (materials/technology)	Char. of instructional Methods	Instructional Objectives	Curr. Eval. & Assessment	Co-curricular Activities	Curriculum Models	Bi-/Multi-Lingual Ed.	Bi-/Multi-Cultural Ed.	Teach. Eng. as a Sec. Lang.	Other Sec. Lang. Teaching	Advantages/Implications of Bilingualism	Measurement of Bilingualism	Value/Attitude Dev.	Value Teaching	Region
21. Barron (1970)														2B							8
22. Beans (1968)		2	2		2																Brazil
24. Belmler (1972)	(3A)		(3A)	(3A)	(3A)					(3A)	(3A)	(3A)	(3A)				(3A)		3A	3A	Mexico
25. Bentz (1971)			2C								2C										6-7
28. Borrego (1968)													2B		2B						8
32. Burns (1972)			3A																		9
40. Cutting (1969)							(3A) 1B														7
42. Davidson (1967)													1A								8
45. Femminella (1968)																			1B		8
50. Flores (1969)													2AB								8
67. Fraser (1970)		2AB	2B	1A			2B			2B		3A									6, 7

IV. SCHOOL PROGRAM (continued)

Author/Date	A. Curriculum and Instruction												B. Related Literature								
	Curriculum Development	Curr. Organization	Program Objectives	Cognitive Content	Affective Content	Psychomotor Content	Instructional Resources (materials/technology)	Char. of Instructional Methods	Instructional Objectives	Curr. Eval. & Assessment	Co-curricular Activities	Curriculum Models	Bi-/Multi-Lingual Ed.	Bi-/Multi-Cultural Ed.	Teach. Eng. as a Sec. Lang.	Other Sec. Lang. Teaching	Advantages/Implications of Bilingualism	Measurement of Bilingualism	Value/Attitude Dev.	Value Teaching	Region
73. Goodson (1970)			3C	3C	3C			3C		3C		3C		3C					3C	3C	7, 8
74. Gordon (1969)													1AB								8
80. Hong (1968)								1AB													8
82. Hunkins (1968)														3C							8
83. Hussey (1967)	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B	2B 3B					8
92. Kirkpatrick (1973)	(2A)						(2A)														Mexico
96. Lawrence (1969)														3B							United States
97. Lawson (1972)													3B								United States
99. Lee (1968)	2A		1B	3A	3A		2A	2A	1B	1B		3A	2C	2B					2B	2A	8
107. McDowell (1966)														1AB							8

IV. SCHOOL PROGRAM (continued)

Author/Date	A. Curriculum and Instruction													B. Related Literature								Region
	Curriculum Development	Curr. Organization	Program Objectives	Cognitive Content	Affective Content	Psychomotor Content	Instructional Resources (materials/technology)	Char. of Instructional Methods	Instructional Objectives	Curr. Eval. & Assessment	Co-curricular Activities	Curriculum Models	Bi-/Multi-Lingual Ed.	Bi-/Multi-Cultural Ed.	Teach. Eng. as a Sec. Lang.	Other Sec. Lang. Teaching	Advantages/Implications of Bilingualism	Measurement of Bilingualism	Value/Attitude Dev.	Value Teaching	
109. McWhorter (1969)		1A									1A										7
113. Modiano (1966)													1A								8
114. Mosely (1969)													1B								8
116. Oneto (1968)																1A					8
117. Orr (1964)		2A							1B												5
118. Orr & Seaquist (1968)		1B																			
119. Orr (1962)			1B								1B										6
122. Orr & Lee (1968)	1B																		1A		7
124. Orr & Others (1967)												2B									9
130. Painter (1965)								1A					1A								United States

Author/Date	A. Curriculum and Instruction												B. Related Literature								
	Curriculum Development	Curr. Organization	Program Objectives	Cognitive Content	Affective Content	Psychomotor Content	Instructional Resources (materials/technology)	Char. of Instructional Methods	Instructional Objectives	Curr. Eval. & Assessment	Co-curricular Activities	Curriculum Models	Bi-/Multi-Lingual Ed.	Bi-/Multi-Cultural Ed.	Teach. Eng. as a Sec. Lang.	Other Sec. Lang. Teaching	Advantages/Implications of Bilingualism	Measurement of Bilingualism	Value/Attitude Dev.	Value Teaching	Region
133. Patterson (1970)	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B						2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B	2C 3B						6
135. Patterson (1960)	1B		1B										1B	1B							6
137. Patterson (1969)	2B	2B	2B				2B		2B	2B		2B	2B	2B	2B						6
139. Perrone (1963)		2B 2C	(2A) (2B) (2C)	1B (1A) 2A	1B (1A) 2A 2B		(1A) 1B (1C) 2A 2B 3C			1B 2A 2B									2A (2B)		Mexico, Argentina U. S.
140. Perrone (1965)		2A 2B 3C	(2A) (2B) (2C)	1B 1A 2A (2B)	1B 1A 2A 2B		(1A) 1B (1C) 2A 2B 3A			1B 2A 2B 3A									1B 2A (2B)		Latin America 6-7
145. Peseau (1971)			2A						2A										2A	2A	7

IV. SCHOOL PROGRAM (continued)

Author/Date	A. Curriculum and Instruction											B. Related Literature									Region
	Curriculum Development	Curr. Organization	Program Objectives	Cognitive Content	Affective Content	Psychomotor Content	Instructional Resources (materials/technology)	Char. of Instructional Methods	Instructional Objectives	Curr. Eval. & Assessment	Co-curricular Activities	Curriculum Models	Bi-/Multi-Lingual Ed.	Bi-/Multi-Cultural Ed.	Teach. Eng. as a Sec. Lang.	Other Sec. Lang. Teaching	Advantages/Implications of Bilingualism	Measurement of Bilingualism	Value/Attitude Dev.	Value Teaching	
146. Peseau, Xavier, & Martinez(1964)				3C			3C	3C													7
147. Peseau & Colmenares (1964)		3C	3C	3C	3C		3C	3C			3C	3C	3C			3C	3C				7
148. Peseau & Colmenares (1964)		3C	3C	3C	3C		3C	3C			3C	3C	3C		3C		3C				7
152. Pomerantz (1970)													1A								United States
153. Romero (1966)																			2C		United States
154. Ronsheim (1967)			2	2				2													5
158. Rupp (1967)														3AB							United States
159. Saiki (1968)							3B													1B	United States
161. Sarthory (1968)								1B						1B							United States
167. Sokol (1972)		2A 2B					2A 1B	2A 2B			(2A) (1B)	2A 2B	(2B)				(2B)	(2B)			Colombia

IV. SCHOOL PROGRAM (continued)

Author/Date	A. Curriculum and Instruction												B. Related Literature								Region
	Curriculum Development	Curr. Organization	Program Objectives	Cognitive Content	Affective Content	Psychomotor Content	Instructional Resources (materials/technology)	Char. of Instructional Methods	Instructional Objectives	Curr. Eval. & Assessment	Co-curricular Activities	Curriculum Models	Bi-/Multi-Lingual Ed.	Bi-/Multi-Cultural Ed.	Teach. Eng. as a Sec. Lang.	Other Sec. Lang. Teaching	Advantages/Implications of Bilingualism	Measurement of Bilingualism	Value/Attitude Dev.	Value Teaching	
170. Taylor (1970)										2											9
171. Thomas (1968)													1A								United States
175. Trevino (1968)													1A								United States
177. Tudor (1972)		(3A)	(3C)						(3A)	(3C)			(3C)	(3C)							
178. Tullis (1964)														1AB							United States
179. Utibarri (1960)														1B							8
183. Webb (1968)													1A								8
184. Weiser (1966)														1B							8
185. Weiss (1962)													1A								8
191. Young (1960)																					6-7

V. PERSONNEL

V. PERSONNEL

Author/Date	A. Full-Time Personnel													B. Part-Time Personnel										C. Auxiliary/Paraprofessional Personnel							
	General Characteristics	Nationality	Bilinguality	Mobility	Academic Preparation	Prof. Preparation	Exp./Specialized Competencies	Salaries/Fr. Benefits	In-Service Training	Cross-Cult. Prof. Opp.	Academic Opportunities	Prof. Associations	Attitudinal Studies	General Characteristics	Nationality	Bilinguality	Mobility	Academic Preparation	Prof. Preparation	Exp./Spec. Competencies	Salaries/Fr. Benefits	In-Service Training	Cross-Cult. Prof. Opp.	Academic Opportunities	Prof. Associations	Attitudinal Studies	General Characteristics	Salaries/Fr. Benefits	Prof. Preparation	On-Job Training Opp.	Academic Training Opp.	Assignment	Adv. to Prof. Status	Region
4. Allar (1969)						1B																											8
7. Anderson (1972)	1B	1B	1B	(1B)	1B	1B	1B	X	2A	3A	3A	1B	X	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	X	2A	3A	3A	1B	X	1B	X	1B	2A	3A	1B	3A	9
8. Anderson & Orr (1972)							2A		3A	3A	3A		3A																					8
11. Anderson & Orr (1972)	2C	2C	2C	2A	2A	2A	2A	2C						2C	2C	2C	2A	2A	2A	2A	2C													6
24. Beimler (1972)										(2B)			1B										(2B)			1B								6
25. Bentz (1971)	2C	2C		2C	2C									2C			2C																	6
27. Bolger (1967)			1A																															8
39. Crowl (1972)											1B																							7
40. Cutting (1969)												1B (3C)													1B (3C)									7
46. Ferguson (1969)													1B																					8
73. Goodson (1970)																							3C											7, 8
78. Henken (1966)													1B																					Nigeria
84. Israel (1967)													1A																					8
86. Johnson (1972)		1B		1B						1B																								2
91. King (1968)	2B			2A	2B	2B	2B	2B														2A												9
92. Kirkpatrick	(2A)	(2A)			(2A)	(2A)			2A		(2A)	(2A)	(2A)																					6
99. Lee (1968)					(2C)	(2C)				2B			1B																					8

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V. PERSONNEL (continued)

Author/Date	A. Full-Time Personnel													B. Part-Time Personnel										C. Auxiliary/Paraprofessional Personnel						
	General Characteristics	Nationality	Bilinguality	Mobility	Academic Preparation	Prof. Preparation	Exp./Specialized Competencies	Salaries/Fr. Benefits	In-Service Training	Cross-Cult. Prof. Opp.	Academic Opportunities	Prof. Associations	Attitudinal Studies	General Characteristics	Nationality	Bilinguality	Mobility	Academic Preparation	Prof. Preparation	Exp./Spec. Competencies	Salaries/Fr. Benefits	In-Service Training	Cross-Cult. Prof. Opp.	Academic Opportunities	Prof. Associations	Attitudinal Studies	General Characteristics	Salaries/Fr. Benefits	Prof. Preparation	On-Job Training Opp.	Academic Training Opp.	Assignment	Adv. to Prof. Status	Region
105. Mannino (1971)	3A	3A		3A	3A	3A	3A	3A	3A		3A			3A	3A		3A	3A	3A		3A	3A		3A				3A				3A	9
108. McGugan (1970)		2A		2A	2A	2A		2A																										6, 7
109. McWhorter (1969)	1A 1C	1A 1C 2B	1A 1C	(1A)	1A 2B	2B	1A 2B	1A 2B	1A 2B		(1A)	(1A)																						7 Venezuela
117. Orr (1964)	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B	1B																									
118. Orr & Seaquist (1968)	(1B)	(1B)	(1B)	(1B)	(1B)	(1B)	(1B)	(1B)	1B																									6-7 6-7
125. Orr & Anderson (1972)						2A		2A			2A																							9
133. Patterson (1970)									2B 3C																									6
135. Patterson (1960)		1B	1B						1B																									6
137. Patterson (1969)		2B	2B						2B			2B																						9
156. Roth (1970)	2B			2B	2B	2B	2B	2B					1A																					9
163. Seaquist (1968)		2B	2B		2B	2B	2B	2B	2A																									Colombia
167. Sokol (1972)		(1B)	(1B)		1B	1B		1B	1B	2A	1B																							Colombia
170. Taylor (1970)			(2B)					2A	2B																									9
177. Tudor (1972)	3A	3A	3A		3A	3A	3C	3C	3C					3A	3A	3A		3A	3A	3C	3C	3C					3A	3C	3A	3C	3C	3C	3C	6
180. Vest (1971)													1A																				9
189. Williams (1965)													1B																				8

VI. PUPILS

Author/Date	A. Profile					B. Pupil Achievement School Situation					
	Pupil Profile	Nationality	Mobility	Bilinguality	Cognitive	General Affective	Cult, Values, Attitudes, Beliefs	Psychomotor	Pupil Achievement Follow-up Studies	Pupil Behavior in Multi-cultural Setting	Region
82. Parmee (1966)						2A				2A	8
85. Patterson (1960)					1A	1	1				6
102. Plott (1967)										1ABC	8
121. Vinocur (1968)											6, 7

Author/Date See bibliography for full citation. The number left of the citation refers to the bibliography for the matrix.	A. Profile					B. Pupil Achievement School Situation					
	Pupil Profile	Nationality	Mobility	Bilinguality	Cognitive	General Affective	Cult, Values, Attitudes, Beliefs	Psychomotor	Pupil Achievement Follow-up Studies	Pupil Behavior in Multi-cultural Setting	Region
5. Anderson & Orr (1972)					3A 2A	3A 2A	3A 2A	3A 2A	3A		8
8. Anderson & Orr	2C	2C	2C	2C							6
14. Beecher (1968)						1AB				1AB	8
15. Beimler (1972)		(1B)		(1B)		1B	1B				6
16. Bentz (1971)	2C	2C	2C	2C							6
30. Cutting (1969)	1B (3C)										7
39. Fraser (1970)		2A		1A	1A						6, 7
42. Gleason (1970)						1B	1B			1B	9
44. Goodson					3C	3C	3C				7, 8
49. Hussey (1967)	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	3AB		8
59. Krajewski (1969)									1B		9
61. Lee (1968)						(2A)	(2A)				8

Author/Date	A. Profile					B. Pupil Achievement School Situation					Region
	Pupil Profile	Nationality	Mobility	Bilinguality	Cognitive	General Affective	Cult, Values, Attitudes, Beliefs	Psychomotor	Pupil Achievement Follow-up Studies	Pupil Behavior in Multi-cultural Setting	
62. Lindblom (1969)			1B								8
64. Malone (1966)					2AB		2AB				7
65. Mannino (1971)		1C									9
68. McWhorter (1969)	1A	1A	(1A)								7
70. Miller				1B		1B	1B			1B	1
72. Orr (1964)	1B	1B		1B							6, 7
73. Orr & Seaquist (1968)	(1B)	(1B)	(1B)								7
74. Orr (1962)				1B						1B	6
76. Orr & Lee (1968)						1A	1A				8
77. Orr & Perrone (1969)					1C						9
81. Orr, Anderson, & Forehand (1971)		2A									6

EPILOGUE

VIGNETTE

Pablo, Dawson and Caryl: Heritage Fulfilled

The Conference Committee of the International Congress was scheduled to meet on August 11, 2017. The members would arrive at agreements which would have direct impact on the relatively stable world population of two billion people. Experts in the 1970's had projected a doubling of the 3.9 billion people by 2009 but they had not realized the magnitude of population decline which occurred after the catastrophic famine of 1977.

Pablo O'Leary, representing the African Complex, reflected on his heritage: an American grandfather, a Welsh mother, a Mexican wife whose grandfather was Ecuadorian, and he was among the first of a nationality called Man. His grandfather had told him of a diplomat in the Pre-Hydrogen Energy era, with whom he had chatted frequently, who had been the first to suggest that international law was the precept on which a peaceful world could exist. The personal stories had whetted his interest during his post-doctoral study in international law at the UN University in Nairobi in 1982. His father had told him often of his own early days of schooling in a multinational, bilingual setting and how the understanding gained had helped in founding the International Universities throughout the world.

Dawson Hauer was the Conference Committee's expert on "selection for the right to work." With only 20 percent of the world's peoples needed to work in order to provide the goods and services for all, the topic was a persistent problem. With increased emphasis on the abolition of most remaining personal services, the committee was confronted with serious choices.

Dawson reflected on the changes in his lifetime. His grandfather had told him many times during his high school days in the early 1970's that something no less dramatic and awful than nuclear holocaust would bring about mankind's full understanding of his interdependence. It was regrettable that he didn't live to see the most dramatic change in history occur in only two decades: the accidental discovery of the means of harnessing and storing pollution free hydrogen fuel catalyzed by solar energy in 1977 and production of limitless and cheap energy by 1979; devastating famine in which 900 million people died in 1977-1984; threatened and near nuclear attack by a starving country on its neighbor in 1982; outlawing internationally all nuclear devices and weapons in 1983 and their exit into space in 1984; nitrogen fixation from air in 1985 providing abundant fertilizer paralleled by criss-cross irrigation and water transportation systems throughout the world; and solar powered desalinization of seawater and topsoil recovery capability. The capstone was the formation of the International Congress in 1986 with sole power to maintain a peace keeping force and with final power to judge all disputes through international law. That civilization had taken a quantum jump was a realized fact that had been only a dream and a hope for the 22nd Century.

Dawson could barely conceive that energy was free and abundant, that food, water, shelter, clothing and climate control were available to everyone in this year of 2017. He was plagued with the speculative question if this could have happened without a cost of the lives of two billion people. The Nation States of Europe which he represented had funded an in-depth research project in 2002 to treat the question. The young researcher, Caryl Soloman, was the current representative from the Americas and the third member of the Conference Committee.

Caryl Soloman's grandmother Connie Brecker, had been the first woman President of the United States. Caryl had learned much from her. Caryl's major contribution had been the ability to reduce complex concepts into simple, understandable terms. Her earlier research which had guided many post-famine precepts was reducible to simple terms: International law was a transcript of natural law; with no fear of failure combined with security for self and family, people could pursue their potentials without fear, hate or anxiety; that indeed interdependence was a given.

The peoples of the world felt secure and well represented as Pablo O'Leary called to order the session of the Conference Committee.

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